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THE CHAUTAUQUAN

A MONTHLY MAGAZINE

OCTOBER, 1896, TO MARCH, 1897

Volume XXIV.—New Series, Volume XV.

Dr. THEODORE L. FLOOD, Editor

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VOLUME XXIV.

OCTOBER, 1896. TO MARCH, 1897.

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FRANÇOIS FELIX FAURE, PRESIDENT OF FRANCE.

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OFFICERS OF THE CHAUTAUQUA LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CIRCLE.

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REQUIRED READING FOR THE CHAUTAUQUA LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CIRCLE.

A GROUP OF EMINENT FRENCH WOMEN.*

BY EUGENE L. DIDIER.

WHEN George Eliot said, "If the writings of women were swept away from French letters a serious gap would be made in the national literature," she spoke nothing but the truth. During the last three centuries woman has played a prominent and brilliant part in the intellectual life of France. Homer declared that Minerva concealed the wrinkles of Ulysses. In France woman has not only reigned over the social world, but has inspired and rewarded genius. Literature is the noblest of all earthly pursuits. Its brightness never fades; its glory never passes away. The purple robe of Dido has been preserved in all its pristine beauty by the immortal pen of Virgil; the armor of Paris shines as brightly in the pages of

Homer now as when it dazzled the eyes of Hector three thousand years ago.

Madame Rambouillet,¹ who founded the first French salon, gathered around her the most illustrious literary men of the seventeenth century. Her hotel has been called

"the cradle of Parisian society." She possessed all the qualities necessary for the position which she held in that splendid world.* She

was sympathetic, kind, exquisitely graceful, eloquent, beautiful, gifted, accomplished, and appreciative; blessed with an infinite tact and a perfect *savoir-faire*.²

She was the friend and adviser of authors and artists, and it was regarded as an honor and a privilege to be received by her. In her salon Corneille³ recited his dramas before they

were given to the public; Armand du Plessis⁴ here read those verses which he vainly hoped would make him first poet of



MADAME DE MAINTENON.

*The Notes on the Required Reading in THE CHAUTAUQUAN will be found following those on the books of the course, in the C. L. S. C. Department of the magazine.

France, as he afterward became her greatest statesman, as Cardinal Richelieu⁵; here Bossuet⁶ improvised a sermon on a given theme: here Voiture⁷ delighted the company by his wit, Angelique Paulet⁸ by her beauty and voice, and Mlle. de Scudéry⁹ by her dazzling *esprit*. In this celebrated salon were combined the graceful refinement of Italy, the chivalry of Spain, and the brilliant wit of France.

Madame de Sévigné¹⁰ was one of the cleverest women in the golden age of Louis XIV. In her celebrated "Letters" she reflects the life and manners of her time. Her wit, *esprit*, and simplicity have made her "Letters" the most famous that have been written since those of Cicero. Born in the

Palais Royal,¹¹ in the very center of Parisian brilliancy, she was early accustomed to the splendor of court life. She was much more carefully educated than many of the young ladies of the noble French families of the seventeenth century, and as she was gifted with versatility of talents she soon attracted attention in the fashionable world of Paris. At the early age of eighteen she was married to a man entirely unworthy of her. Left a widow at the age of twenty-five, with two children, she devoted her life to them. Most of her "Letters" were written to her daughter, and they breathe the tenderest maternal love, which was the grand passion of her life. The marriage of this daughter,

which took her two hundred leagues from her mother, was a cruel blow to Madame de Sévigné. She consoled herself in this separation by writing frequent letters to her daughter, and spending much time in reading and study. She read poetry and philosophy, history and fiction, ancient classics and modern novels. Her tastes and talents threw her into the congenial literary society of her time, and she became the friend of the most distinguished men and women of that brilliant age—of Corneille, Racine, Boileau, Cardinal de Retz, Bossuet, Molière, Fontenelle, Madame de La Fayette, Bussy-Rabutin, Turenne, Fouquet, La Fontaine, La Rochefoucauld, Madame de Coulanges, and the Prince de Conti.¹²

Among Madame de Sévigné's friends was the wife of Scarron,¹³ the comic poet. Françoise d'Aubigné's¹⁴ life was more romantic than any



ELIZA RACHEL FÉLIX

of the heroines of the novels of the seventeenth century. She was born in a prison, where her father was confined for the murder of his first wife. Her mother was a daughter of the governor of the prison, whom D'Aubigné had persuaded to marry him secretly. In 1639 he was released, and with his wife and children emigrated to Martinique,¹⁵ where he died in great poverty; after his death his wife and children returned to France. At the age of fifteen, Françoise's beauty and wit attracted the attention of Scarron, the grotesque but brilliant cripple. In 1652 they were married. When the contract was drawn up Scarron declared that the bride brought with her an annual income of four louis,¹⁶ two large and very mischievous eyes, a very fine figure, a pair of beautiful hands, and a large amount of wit. The notary inquired what dowry he gave her. "Immortality," he replied. "The names of kings' wives die with them, that of the wife of Scarron will live forever." The education of this remarkable woman really began after she became the wife of Scarron. She studied Spanish, Italian, and Latin; became a learned woman, drew witty men and clever women to her humble dwelling, where although they sometimes had no meat there was always plenty of wit and gaiety. She was the devoted wife and secretary of her husband. Mlle. Scudéry describes her as being tall and hand-

some, and although she did not set up for a beauty she was one in a very high degree. and her mind was made expressly for her person. After a few brilliant successes Scarron died, leaving his widow penniless, for his pension died with him.

Madame Scarron endeavored to secure the reversion of her husband's pension, but with slight hope of success until she attracted the attention of Madame de Montespan, who used her powerful influence in her behalf and obtained an annual allowance of two thousand francs.¹⁷

Recognizing her fine qualities, Madame de Montespan appointed Madame Scarron governess to the five children she had had by Louis XIV. The king did not

MADAME DE SÉVIGNÉ.

at first approve of this appointment, as he was not attracted by the grave demeanor of the young widow. Her prudence and wisdom, however, soon won his regard, and in a few years she became his adviser and confidant, was made Marchioness de Maintenon,¹⁸ with a still higher honor in the near future. In 1685 she was secretly married to the king, and became in fact, if not in name, the queen of France and Navarre.¹⁹ Although she exercised a great influence over Louis XIV., she used her power with wise moderation, avoiding the appearance of meddling in state affairs, although the king did nothing without consulting her. After the death of Louis, in 1715, Madame de Maintenon retired to the convent-academy of



Saint-Cyr,²⁰ which she had founded, where she died in 1719.

During the eighteenth century there were many clever French women, but few of them were worthy of admiration until Madame de Staël²¹ arose, and eclipsed them all by her commanding talents. The daughter of Necker, the best and purest of the prime ministers of the unfortunate Louis XVI., she was introduced as a child into the salon of Madame Necker, where her precocious wit charmed statesmen and philosophers. Unlike most French girls of her rank in life, young Germaine Necker was not sent to a boarding school, but was educated at home under the direction of her intellectual mother. The brilliant literary society into which she was early thrown developed her love of literature into a passion, and she soon learned to regard literary fame as the noblest of human endeavors. She cultivated conversation as an art and few men or women have equaled and none have surpassed her as an eloquent talker. Her

power lay in her great capacity for love—she was intense, passionate, strong, full of sympathy, feeling, affection. Her soul was burning with a divine flame, which we call genius. In 1786 she married Baron de Staël, the Swedish ambassador at the court of France. It was not a love match, but was arranged, as they ordered things in France before the Revolution, by her parents. Baron de Staël was handsome, distinguished, accomplished, but his wife was his intellectual superior, and this produced a want of perfect sym-



GEORGE SAND.

pathy between them, and shattered her hope of an ideal marriage.

When the French Revolution began, with its high idea of the freedom of man, Madame

de Staël entered into it with her usual generous enthusiasm, and among her friends were La Fayette, Mirabeau, Chénier, Barnave, Talleyrand,²² etc. But while

a republican in mind, she was always an aristocrat at heart. During the Reign of Terror Madame de Staël was forced to leave France, and she retired to Coppet,²³ in Switzerland, where she remained until the downfall of Robespierre permitted her safe return to the home of her heart and intellect—Paris. Her salon was reopened, and no woman in France was better fitted to preside over a gathering of wits, philosophers, and accom-



MADAME RÉCAMIER.

plished women. The reaction from the Roman simplicity of the revolutionary days was marked by an extraordinary dash, brilliancy, freedom, and license in French society. When Napoleon Bonaparte became the master of France as the First Consul, "the empire of woman resumed its sweet and salutary sovereignty." Josephine, by her grace and dignity, charmed all the world, and did much to make the drawing-rooms of Paris serve as a meeting place of all that was brightest, wittiest, most fascinating. She was ably seconded by Mesdames de Staël and Récamier, who gathered around them the most intellectual men and brilliant women, ambassadors, politicians, generals, Republicans, Royalists, and Imperialists, who, in the gracious presence of Madame Récamier, threw aside, for the time, political differences, while enjoying the charm of her personal beauty.



MADAME DE STAËL.

Madame de Staël had no sympathy with the gigantic ambition of Napoleon, and by her opposition to his policy incurred the anger of the modern Caesar. Determined to silence her powerful voice, at least in France, he exiled her from her beloved Paris, and during his domination she was a wanderer about Europe, seeking rest but finding it not. For a time she had a salon at Coppet, which was frequented by Sismondi, Monti, Matthieu Montmorenci, Schlegel, Prince Augustus, and the brilliant, gifted, eloquent Benjamin Constant. Of the celebrated circle Madame de Staël was the queen, fascinating all by her wonderful con-

versation; but in spite of the brilliancy of this life she was unhappy away from Paris. She said she preferred the gutters of the Rue du Bac to the beauties of Lake Lemán. "French conversation exists only in Paris," she said. "Conversation has been from my infancy my greatest pleasure."

During her wanderings Madame de Staël visited Italy and wrote her famous novel "Corinne"; she went to Germany and wrote her great work "De l'Allemagne": she passed over to England and met with a flattering reception in the first literary and social circles of London, became acquainted with Byron, Moore, Sheridan, Rogers, etc. At last the downfall of Napoleon once more re-

stored her to Paris where she again reopened her salon. It was the last glimmer of her brilliant powers; in a year or two she died. She was and is justly regarded as the greatest, the most gifted, the most intellectual, the cleverest woman of her age, and not surpassed by any woman in any age. From poetry to philosophy, from fiction to history, her mind was at home. She wrote novels, history, poetry, travels, philosophy, and politics, and in each and all displayed the highest intellectual qualities. She exercised a vast and varied influence over her age. With one or two exceptions she excelled all women in intellectual gifts; George Sand was a greater artist, George Eliot a greater novelist, a more accurate scholar, a more logical thinker, but in versatility, in brilliancy of conversation, in natural eloquence, she stands without a rival.

Madame Récamier has been called "the last flower of the salons." Her fame as a social leader eclipsed that of all her contemporaries. Her wonderful beauty, her exquisite grace, her rare tact, her irresistible personal charm captivated all who approached her. Lucien Bonaparte was one of her admirers, La Harpe²⁵ was devoted to her, Napoleon himself tried to draw her to his court. After the exile of her friend Madame de Staël, she joined the opposition to Napoleon and was also banished from Paris, but returned after the Restoration and resumed her salon with even greater brilliancy than before. Losing her fortune, she retired to the Abbaye aux Bois,²⁶ where she preserved for thirty years the tradi-

tions of the salons. Her friends were the most distinguished men of her time. Chateaubriand²⁷ was her devoted friend and admirer for more than thirty years. He wrote to her from Berlin, Rome, London, Jerusalem, wherever he was; Sainte-Beuve, Montalembert, Ampère, Tocqueville, Merimée, Thierry, Humboldt, Miss Berry, Maria Edgeworth, Sir Humphrey Davy,²⁸ were among her guests. In her salon Lamartine read his meditations and Delphine Gay her first poems; here Rachel recited, Garcia, Rubini, and Lablache²⁹ sang. David, Gerard, and Delacroix³⁰ represented art, and society was represented by the leading spirits of the *beau monde*.³¹

Amantine Lucile Aurore Dudevant, better known by her *nom de plume* of George Sand,



ROSA BONHEUR.

was the daughter of Captain Dupin, a soldier of the Revolution and the Empire. Her grandmother was the only daughter of the celebrated Marshal de Saxe.³² Left an orphan at an early age, Mlle. Dupin was educated under the direction of her grandmother, who was a disciple of Rousseau upon the subject of female education. Aurore was allowed the freedom of action more suitable to a boy than a girl; she thus acquired an independence of thought and behavior that ever afterward distinguished her. At fifteen she was sent to the Convent des Dames Anglaises, in Paris, where she soon became extremely devout.

At the age of seventeen she was married to M. Dudevaut, a country gentleman of Berri. After living with him ten years, and having two children, she separated from her husband in 1831; allowing him to retain her fortune, she went to Paris, and determined to begin, at the age of twenty-seven, a life of absolute freedom. At first she resided at the convent where she had been educated, but soon removed to a garret in the Quartier de St. Michel, where Jules Sandeau, a young student with whom she had a slight acquaintance, also lived. They formed a literary partnership and wrote a novel, "Rose and Blanche," which was published in 1831 and had some success. Her next novel, "Indiana," was written by herself alone, but in memory of her friendship for Jules Sandeau the name of George Sand was placed upon the title page as its author. The genius of "Indiana" and other novels written during 1832-3 was universally acknowledged, but they were all tainted with extremely lax views upon the subject of marriage. She wrote altogether about thirty novels, including "Consuelo," "Countess Rudolstadt," "Spiridion," "Mauprat," etc. When the French Revolution of 1848 took place, George Sand saw in it a hope for a true democracy, and she founded and edited a newspaper in which she enthusiastically advocated democratic principles. After Louis Napoleon declared himself emperor, she resumed her former literary work, and added to her reputation as a novelist that of a successful dramatist. During her laborious literary life she wrote ninety-seven volumes.

C-Oct.

Eliza Rachel Félix, one of the greatest of French actresses, was the daughter of a wandering Hebrew peddler, and was born at Mumph, Switzerland, February 28, 1820. As a child, she and her sister Sarah gained a precarious living singing in the *cafés* and on the boulevards of Lyons and Paris. When thirteen years old, she attracted the attention of Choron,³³ teacher of singing at the Royal Institution, and through his influence Rachel and her sister were admitted to the Conservatoire. Rachel showed more dramatic than musical talent, and in 1837 made an unsuccessful *début* at the Gymnase, but the next year she astonished Paris by her rendition of Camille, in "Les Horaces," at the Théâtre Français. Her wonderful genius revived the classic tragedies of Racine, Corneille, and Voltaire. She created a new era in dramatic art by her daring originality, the extraordinary expressiveness of her features, and the brilliancy of her declamation. Among her greatest rôles were Joan of Arc, Mary Stuart, and Adrienne Lecouvreur. In 1855 she came to the United States, accompanied by her brother, Raphael, and her three sisters, Sarah, Lia, and Dinah. After playing in New York, Boston, and Philadelphia, her health failed during her Baltimore engagement. She returned to France, and died near Cannes January 3, 1858. This remarkable actress was not beautiful; her complexion was pale, her figure slender, her features were not regular. Her charm and power lay in her brilliant eyes and her fascinating presence.

One of the most gifted French women of modern times, Rosa Bonheur,³⁴ was born at Bordeaux, March 22, 1822. She studied art under her father, Raymond Bonheur, and first attracted attention by two pictures exhibited at Bordeaux in 1841. Having devoted herself entirely to the painting of animals, she is universally recognized as the first of artists, living or dead, in that branch of the art of painting. In 1848 she received a first-class medal at the Paris Salon; in 1850 she exhibited her great work "Plowing in Nivernaise," which excited the greatest interest in Paris, and received the crowning honor of French artists, a place in the

gallery of the Luxembourg⁸⁵; she received a first-class medal at the Paris Exposition of 1855 and the Legion of Honor in 1865. The picture by which Rosa Bonheur is best known in the United States is her "Horse Fair," which was first exhibited in London in 1855, and soon after was purchased by A. T. Stewart, of New York, for \$20,000, and was for many years one of the chief attrac-

tions of his beautiful art gallery. This painting is now one of the ornaments of the Metropolitan Museum, New York. Rosa Bonheur is one of the greatest artists of this century. Her style is strong, vigorous, robust, masculine; her composition excellent, and what is especially remarkable in a female painter, she is most successful in large canvases.

THE FRENCH REPUBLIC.

BY PROFESSOR CHARLES M. ANDREWS, PH.D.

OF BRYN MAWR COLLEGE.

OF the three republics of France that of the present time is the only one which has represented the will of the people of France—has become in reality what it is in name. The First Republic, which lasted nominally from 1792 to 1804, was nothing but a despotism, whether governed by the National Convention, the Directory, or the First Consul.¹ The Second Republic, proclaimed in 1848 by a provisional government appointed by a Parisian mob, never received the sanction of the people of France, and was from the beginning doomed to destruction. The Third Republic, born in the midst of war, and called upon to fight against the Germans abroad and the Communards² and Monarchists at home, has already justified its existence of twenty-five years.

But the Third Republic was by no means assured from the beginning of a long lease of life. Proclaimed by Gambetta and the Republicans of Paris on September 4, 1870, it was not officially recognized until 1872. The circumstances were these: The Provisional Government of the National Defense, appointed on the fall of the imperial government to carry on the war with Germany, resigned its powers into the hands of a National Assembly summoned in 1871 to conclude terms of peace. Thiers,³ a loyal believer in a constitutional monarchy, was chosen head of the executive department. He, becoming convinced that, with three pretenders—Bonapartist, Bourbon,

and Orleanist—competing for a single throne, a republican form of government was the only one that could prevent civil war, announced his acceptance of the existing *régime*. Had not the Monarchists, who were a majority of the members of the National Assembly, been hopelessly divided they would probably have succeeded in overturning the new republic.

In 1873, with the retirement of Thiers and the election of MacMahon—who favored monarchy and the Bonapartes—they entered upon their control of the republic, hoping that some turn of fortune would bear one or other of the pretenders to the headship of the state. They were supported in their reactionary movement on one side by the ecclesiastics and on the other by the Radicals, who also desired the overthrow of the existing order. In 1875 they received their first check in the decision of the National Assembly (which, summoned to conclude peace, had through the efforts of the Monarchists themselves remained to assume constituent powers) to establish definitely the republic and to draft a republican constitution. But perceiving that this constitution of 1875 might easily be utilized as the basis of a constitutional monarchy the pretenders did not cease from their intrigues.

Their plans, however, received another and more serious check when, in the general elections of 1878 under the new constitution, the Republican party gained its first

majority in the Senate and Chamber of Deputies, and MacMahon was forced to resign. He was succeeded by Grévy, a Moderate Republican, and with the entrance of the latter into office the reactionary movement came to an end and the Third Republic, the seat of which was now transferred from Versailles to Paris, took its place as a regular *régime*. The counter-movement, begun in 1875, now went on unrestrained. The Bonapartists were weakened by the death of Prince Louis Napoleon in 1879; and the Bourbons lost their leader in 1883, when the Count of Chambord (Henry V.) died. Laws were passed limiting the control of the ecclesiastics over education and abolishing all the Jesuit associations; the constitution was revised in the interests of the Republicans; all princes of formerly reigning families were declared ineligible to the presidency and Senate in 1884 and to the Chamber of Deputies in 1885; certain leading princes were removed from their positions in the army; and finally, in 1886, the heads and heirs of families that had reigned in France were banished from the country.

But this tendency toward the complete supremacy of the Republican party was too rapid for the good of France; it was endangering parliamentary government; it was leading to exciting and discreditable scenes in the Chambers; and it was encouraging those Radicals who were ambitious to change the existing system by abolishing the presidency and Senate to renew their efforts. The movement reached its height with the years 1888-89, when Boulanger,⁴ coming into prominence at the same time that the danger of war threatened the peace of Europe, seemed to many to be the coming military dictator. Already supported by members of the monarchical parties he won the allegiance of many of the Republicans by promising a revision of the constitution. But when the government brought Boulanger to trial for embezzlement of funds and plots against the state, the general fled to Belgium (where he committed suicide in 1891), and *in absentia*⁵ was convicted by the Senate and disgraced.

The danger was in reality less than it had at first sight appeared to be, and the outcome was wholly advantageous to the republic. The fear of a military dictator was dispelled, the movement toward the Left was checked, and the monarchical parties, weakened by the death of Prince Jerome Bonaparte in 1891 and by that of the Count of Paris in 1894, became impotent, many of their members going over to the Republican ranks.

In 1890 Pope Leo XIII. announced to Europe and to the Roman Church the divine right of the republic, thus removing the antagonism that had hitherto existed between the French government and the clergy; Russia, turning from her Prussophile attitude of 1870, entered in 1892 into friendly relations with the republic; and lastly, in 1893, the elections of that year showed what France had not had for many a day, a homogeneous majority—a national party in the Chamber of Deputies. The bomb of the anarchist Vaillant⁶ had given unity to the republican elements and strengthened the republican cause. This strength has been well tested in the three years that have followed. The Panama scandal threatened to bring republican institutions into disgrace, but the republic weathered the storm; the assassination of Carnot turned the current of popular feeling strongly against the anarchists and their methods; while the resignation of Casimir Périer, which might have proved a crisis, was followed by the election of Faure, a Moderate Republican, by a large majority, and the peaceful condition of the country continues.

The quarrels between the Chambers which have troubled the country during the past year have subsided for the moment and the present ministry of M. Méline, made up of Moderates, stands for harmony and the cessation of needless disputes. The problems that the French Republic is now called upon to solve are neither reactionary, that is, dynastic, nor revolutionary, that is, anarchistic; they are the problems that governments in all civilized nations are to-day concerned with, the problems that

spring from misery, penury, and discontent, social problems, the solution of which, sympathetically undertaken, will in no way menace the integrity of the republic.

Turning, after this brief survey of the history of France during the last twenty-five years, to the administration as it exists to-day, we are prepared to understand why the constitutional organization of France is in origin very different from our own. The French constitution is not in the form of a single document, but is composed of a series of constitutional and organic laws passed in 1875, 1879, 1884, and 1889. According to these laws the government consists of a president, a Senate, and a Chamber of Deputies.

The president is elected for seven years, not directly by the people or through an electoral college, but by an absolute majority of the votes of the members of the Senate and Chamber of Deputies, sitting together, not at Paris but at Versailles, as a National Assembly. The president can initiate legislation concurrently with the two Chambers and, while he has no veto on legislation, he can demand that the Chambers reconsider a law that seems to him dangerous or unsatisfactory. With the advice of the Senate he can dissolve the Chamber of Deputies, but must decree the election of a new Chamber within two months. Thus it will be seen that he has a very considerable control over the popular body if he chooses to exercise it, a fact that explains why the extreme Republicans desire a further limitation of his powers. As yet, however, no president has made use of these constitutional privileges, and its value is not very practical. From the administrative point of view he is more influential than the president of the United States; but from the political standpoint his position is considerably less important, for he has no veto power and little or no control over his ministers. This will appear when we examine the position and work of the ministers themselves.

The ministerial departments are ten in number: Interior, Foreign Affairs, Finance (including Post and Telegraphs), Justice (to

which Public Worship is joined), Commerce and Industry (including since 1889 the Colonies), Public Instruction and the Arts, Agriculture, Public Works, War, and Marine. The heads of the departments occupy an interesting dual position. In the first place, they make up the Council of Ministers, and although they sit under their own head, the president of the Council, they are as executive agents of the chief executive subordinate to the president, managing the affairs of the departments much as do the heads of departments in this country. Secondly, they constitute the Cabinet of Ministers, and in this capacity they differ radically from the secretaries in the United States. They can initiate legislation, defend their measures from the floor of the Chamber, and in general form part of the political organization. This political prominence is due, in the main, to the fact that the constitution makes the ministers responsible to the Chambers and not to the president, and gives to them the privilege of entrance to both Chambers and the right to be heard when they request it. Although legally named by the president they are in fact named by some statesman prominent in the Chambers whom the president selects in the hope that he will be able to form a Cabinet in harmony with the will of the majority in the Chamber.

Thus the Cabinet, which, it is important to note, is not known to the constitution, as is the Council, becomes in a sense nothing more than the ministers' meeting for consultation as to their political responsibility as representing the majority in the Chambers. Every decree that the president issues must be countersigned by a minister, and the president's salary is fixed yearly by the budget of the minister of finance. Thus the cabinet controls the presidential patronage, and is practically superior to the president. Inasmuch as the ministers are responsible to the Chambers only, it is evident that the Chambers limit at every point the political influence of the president; and it was this inability of the president to control the Chamber of Deputies, when in 1894 the discussion over social

questions became unusually acrimonious, that led to the sensational resignation of Casimir Périer.

The dependence of the ministry upon the Chamber of Deputies is chiefly shown by the fact that whenever the majority goes against the ministerial policy the Cabinet has to resign. There have been in twenty-six years nearly thirty ministries, and the purging of a Cabinet to make it conform to the wishes of the majority is not uncommon. That a French Cabinet is much less stable than a Cabinet in the United States is due to the fact that the former is dependent, as the latter is not, upon the Chambers for its tenure in office; and that it is less stable than an English Cabinet, which has the same political position, may be accounted for by the fact that the political parties are more numerous and the party majority more shifting in France than in England.

In France the legislative power is divided between the Senate and the Chamber of Deputies. The latter body is at present composed of 584 members, each receiving \$1,800 a year, with the privilege of free travel on all the state railways. The members of this Chamber, which is in France as in England the more important body, are elected for four years by universal suffrage, and each citizen twenty-one years of age, who can prove a six months' residence in any city or commune, is entitled to vote. Two methods of voting have been employed by the French, the *scrutin de liste*,⁷ from 1871 to 1876, and again from 1885 to 1889; and the *scrutin d'arrondissement*,⁸ which, used from 1876 to 1885 and reëstablished in 1889, is in force at the present time. The change from the one to the other accords with the monarchical and republican tendencies in the history of the republic, although the present arrangement is not wholly consistent, for the former method favors the liberal cause and a united party, the latter the conservative cause and factions.

The difference between the two methods is this: France is divided into departments and each department into *arrondissements*. The department is given on the basis of

population a certain number of deputies to be voted for. According to the *scrutin de liste* the names of these deputies form a general ticket for which every elector in the department can cast his vote. That is, each elector votes for all the deputies that the department sends to the Chamber of Deputies, a method that the Republicans claim is nearer the intent of universal suffrage than is the other. According to the *scrutin d'arrondissement*, on the other hand, each elector can vote but for one deputy, the deputy of the *arrondissement* in which the elector legally resides.

With the exception of the period from 1876 to 1885, *scrutin de liste* had obtained in France, and at the same time it was possible for any candidate to offer himself in any *arrondissement* that fell vacant. But the rapid rise of Boulanger, who was aided by both these particulars, led to a revision of the organic law, and on February 13, 1889, *scrutin d'arrondissement* was substituted for *scrutin de liste*, and on July 17 of the same year it was decreed that no one could offer himself as a candidate in more than one *arrondissement* and must state at least five days beforehand the *arrondissement* for which he intended to stand. These are the rules that obtain at the present time.

The Upper Chamber has had in this century a varied career: a Chamber of Peers when France was under a monarchy, it is a Senate under the republic. It is composed of three hundred members elected for nine years from citizens at least forty years of age. One third of this body retires every third year, just as one third of our own senators retires every second year. The senators, varying in number from ten from the department of the Seine (Paris) to one from each of the departments of Algeria, are elected from each department, not directly by the people, but indirectly by electoral colleges, made up of representatives of the people.

Each college meets in the capital of its department, and is composed of the deputies of the department, the members of the general council of the department, the members of the council of each *arrondisse-*

ment, and certain delegates from the communes chosen by the municipal council of each commune from among the legal voters. Thus the deputies only are elected by the people, for the senators are chosen by the electoral colleges, and the president by the Senate and Chamber of Deputies in joint session. According to the law of 1875 seventy-five of these senators were to be selected by the National Assembly for life, and this was done from 1875 to 1884 and only two hundred and twenty-five senators were chosen by the electoral colleges. But when, after the overthrow of MacMahon, power fell into the hands of the Republicans it was generally understood that a law would be passed eliminating this objectionable feature. This law was finally passed in 1884, whereby all vacancies among the life senators are to be filled by the election of new senators by the electoral colleges from certain departments selected by lot. In this way all life senatorships will eventually be abolished.

The political influence of the Senate, though considerable according to the constitution, does not seem to be in reality very extensive. No bill can become a law without its consent and it can join with the president in effecting the dissolution of the popular chamber; but its actual importance can be determined from the fact that a majority in the Senate adverse to the ministry would rarely if ever bring about the resignation of the ministry. An admirable instance of this occurred in connection with the late Bourgeois⁹ Cabinet. On the 11th of February last the Senate censured the ministry for some action in connection with the railway scandal. But M. Bourgeois being supported by the Chamber of Deputies refused to resign even though the Senate censured the ministry a second time. Although the Senate declared the act of the minister unconstitutional it took up the matter again in April and refused a vote of confidence in the ministry in connection with its foreign policy. Again M. Bourgeois refused to resign, and it was not until the Senate forced the resignation, by refusing to consider certain appropriation

bills until a new ministry should be formed, that M. Bourgeois retired, declaring that he did so not because of the vote of the Senate but in order that the appropriation bills should be passed. At the same time the Chamber of Deputies passed a resolution supporting the position taken by the head of the Cabinet.

The central government in France has undergone many changes in the last one hundred years, but the local government has been but little affected by such changes. From the year 1800, when Napoleon laid the foundations of the modern local system, to 1884, when the last important bill altering the system was passed, the history of local government in France is the history of a gradual and progressive transformation.

The local system is in its chief features very simple and uniform, therein differing markedly from that of England and the United States. At the head of each of the departments is a prefect, who is appointed by the minister of the interior. As the representative of the government, with duties too numerous to be given here and so extensive as to occupy all his time and to prevent his engaging in any other business, the prefect is in reality a professional officer. At the same time he is a local official also, carrying out all matters relating to local administration. But his dependence on ministerial patronage has destroyed a good deal of the autocratic independence enjoyed by the old Napoleonic prefect. The prefect of to-day is often changed with a change of ministries and his successor is often selected as much for his party services as for administrative ability.

By the side of the prefect is a council whose members are appointed by the president and are forbidden to follow any other business, and whose powers are chiefly administrative and advisory, though its recommendations are not binding upon the prefect.

There is also a general council, elected by the people, to hold for six years, one third of whose members retire every second year. This body has very important duties and functions, for it controls department

property, finances and taxes, highways (except state roads), public works, charities, and has a general supervision over the communes within the department. The powers of this council are carefully enumerated by laws which allow a very considerable amount of local government.

Within the departments are *arrondissements* and communes, parts of the department, not of the state. The *arrondissement* is governed by an under-prefect and a council, but except for the fact that it is the electoral unit its importance is mainly political, as a training ground for future prefects and a field for ministerial patronage. It is not a corporation, as are the department and the commune, and the under-prefect and the council do little more than carry out the orders of the prefect.

Of far greater importance are the communes, of which there are over 36,000. The commune is the lowest administrative unit, corresponding in a sense to our township, and it was this corporation that received such a noteworthy extension of powers in 1884. A few words will make clear the importance of the law. In 1800 each commune was given a mayor and a council, both of whom were, however, appointed by the central government. But this highly centralized system was modified in 1831, when the council was made elective (by universal suffrage after 1848), and by a gradual process, chiefly through laws of 1874 and 1882, the mayor has come to be elected by the municipal councils in all the communes of France.

From 1831 to 1884 there has taken place a more or less continuous agitation for increased powers for the municipal councils and for greater independence of the central government, which finally ended in the passage of the law of 1884, upon which the present government of the commune rests. By this law the municipal council governs the commune, not in certain enumerated matters, as with the general council of the department, but in all things which concern the interest of the commune, the central government interfering only in a few specified cases and in instances of abuse.

This is more complete local government than France has ever had in the past, and it is not a little remarkable that both France in her law of April, 1884, and England in her local government acts of 1888, 1893, and 1894 have increased the powers of the smallest administrative units—the communes and parishes—to such an extent that we Americans can no longer pride ourselves on an exclusive possession of local self-government. In point of fact, the tendency at the present time in this country is against increasing the powers of towns and counties, while the tendency in France is toward the greater administrative independence of the communes. We are inclining toward centralization, France toward decentralization.

Let us turn for a moment, in conclusion, to other features of the French Republic. The area of the country has changed but little since 1815; in 1860 France gained Savoy and Nice, and in 1870 lost Alsace and Lorraine. On the other hand, France has had a considerable colonial expansion and some important accessions.

The French colonies may be divided into three groups as follows: those organically a part of the French state, as Algiers, which is regularly organized in departments and therefore not usually regarded as a colony; those organized under the minister of commerce and industry, which are the property of France, such as the French Congo, French Guinea, and French Soudan added in 1892; those over which France possesses only a protectorate, such as Tunis, Tonkin, and Madagascar, where complete protectorate rights were established only last year.

The population of France is to-day nearly forty millions, that of the colonies about twenty-five millions. The revenues of the state are derived from direct and indirect taxation; there are five chief direct taxes: land tax, poll tax, house tax, door and window tax, and license tax, making up about fifteen per cent of the revenue. The indirect taxes from customs amount to sixty-two per cent, and the protective policy, completed by the imposition of pro-

tective duties on cereal and meat products in 1885, is now well established. The remainder of the revenue is derived from state monopolies, from the income derived from national lands, state manufactures, state railways, etc.

From the outset of its career the republic has suffered from a yearly deficit in the revenue, due to the want of sound financial management. An effort was made in the budget of 1896 (which was 3,392 millions of francs, thirty-two millions less than that of 1895) to decrease the government expenditure, and the measure was passed promptly in December, 1895, in order that it might go into force at the beginning of the fiscal year. This unusual promptness was accompanied by an effort to cover the deficit, which amounted in 1895 to fifty-five millions, by the imposition of new taxes, notably a progressive income tax to take

the place of the door and window tax. This is one of the most important questions just now before the Chambers and the indications all point to the acceptance, notwithstanding the strong opposition to it in the Chamber, of the main features of the income tax, which is distinctly a radical measure. In consequence of the constantly recurring deficit and the indebtedness previously formed the present public debt of France is the second largest in the world, amounting to nearly 4,000 millions of francs, or \$800,000,000.

Nevertheless the present condition of the French Republic is politically, industrially, and financially encouraging, and while the republic will undoubtedly see in the near future important social and political changes there is no reason to suppose that such will involve any change in the existing form of government.

SUNDAY READINGS.

SELECTED BY BISHOP VINCENT.

[*October 4.*]

WHEN the apostles, the first missionaries, went out into the Roman Empire with their message fresh from the lips of the Master, they found that the Roman had cast up highways for them across the empire and that his law was omnipotent within the limits of his sway. But through the vast reaches of the heathen world beyond there were no highways and no all-reaching and powerful law. Later, when the empire crumbled, paganism came in like a flood and seemed to sweep away much of what was best, in destroying the much that was evil—leaving centuries of chaos and darkness to settle down upon what had been the civilized world. The great world was then physically inaccessible.

But a most remarkable series of providences, reaching over the Christian ages, has made all the world physically accessible to Protestant Christendom of to-day. In Psalm CXI. we read that God "hath showed

his people the power of his works, that he might give them the heritage of the heathen." That word has been fulfilled, not only in God's providential dealings with Israel of old and with his church in modern times, but also in another and remarkable sense, in which the "power of God's works" may be understood to mean the "forces of nature." Along with the Christian movement of the ages and the other providential movements, God has been revealing to the nations, especially to the Christian nations, and in a peculiar sense to the Protestant Christian nations, three great forces of nature, by which everything has been transformed and civilization made another thing from what it was in the distant past. Those three great forces are magnetism, steam, and electricity. Each of these had its mission in the great plan of God, in making the world physically accessible to the Gospel message.

It may properly be admitted that, to begin with, in the early centuries the world, especially beyond the Roman Empire, was un-

known and inaccessible. God revealed to man—no one knows how or when or where—the application of magnetism in the mariner's compass, and, with that as his guide, man went out over the earth in his work of discovery, and in process of time it became a known world. At the opening of the thirteenth century A. D. about all the known world was a little strip of land around the Mediterranean Sea. But magnetism, in the mariner's compass, in the next three centuries practically opened the whole world to the knowledge of the civilized nations.

In due time, after the Reformation, with the awakened and earnest life of the Christian Church, there came the need for enlarged facilities for commerce and more rapid intercommunication among the nations. It was then, when the missionary idea began to take possession of men's hearts, that God gave to man the knowledge of the application of steam, in the steam-engine, to prepare the way for such increased intercourse. The bearing of this providential gift upon the problems of modern evangelization may readily be seen. It is to be observed that the knowledge of this power of steam was not given to the heathen nations, nor to the Mohammedan nations. It was not given first to the Roman Catholic nations; and it has not been largely applied by them. They are not to-day employing one fourth as much steam power as is employed by the Protestant nations. The gift was reserved until the Greater Spain, the Greater Portugal, and the Greater France were passing away, and the Greater Britain, representing Protestant Christendom, had come to the front. And all this wonderful power of steam is to-day mainly in the hands of the Protestant nations. Steam began the work of bringing the world closer together and making it easily accessible—the world that was before inaccessible, even after it had been made known through the mariner's compass. This was a marvelous step forward in the work of preparing for the evangelization of the world.

Following the revelation of magnetism and steam there has come, in this age, that

of a new force—electricity—to be employed as an agency in bringing the nations of the earth together into practical unity. This new force of nature promises to be the great motor of the world for the coming generation, to cheapen transportation and intercourse, and to help in annihilating the vast interspaces that have hitherto kept the nations apart. It promises to make—is already making—revolutions in comparison with which what has been accomplished by magnetism and steam cannot but appear insignificant. We have already seen the telegraph and the telephone advance in their reach, from the "short distance" to the "long distance"; until men can literally speak their messages across a continent or under a sea, in their own distinct and clear tones.

God in his providence has been making this threefold revelation of his power to his people, that he might give them the "heritage of the heathen." Christ has, so to speak, been gathering all the world into one mighty audience-chamber, to the remotest aisles of which every word for Christ may reach; and he is now waiting for the church to look this condition of things in the face, and to acknowledge that, however it may have been in the past ages or generations, the excuse that the world is an inaccessible world can now no longer be honestly pleaded at the bar of God, and that it cannot be regarded as worthy of serious consideration even by intelligent men.

[October 11.]

WHEN, about fifty years ago, Dr. John Harris wrote the prize essay entitled "The Great Commission"—the most eloquent and stirring appeal that has been made to the modern church in behalf of missions—he proclaimed with almost prophetic foresight the dawning of a new era, and summoned with almost apostolic fervor Christ's followers to the rescue of the world from sin and Satan. At that time the more earnest Christians were gathering, from month to month, to pray in concert for the breaking down of the barriers imposed by the governments of the nations, Roman Catholic and

pagan, to the spread of the true Gospel. These nations were then everywhere substantially closed against evangelical Christianity—the whole force of the governments being arrayed against it and on the side of error. Many are now living who can recollect when the “Monthly Concert of Prayer for Missions” was introduced into the churches. The Christian Church prayed unitedly for the opening of the world to Christianity.

In answer to this prayer God's providence has been moving in a most wonderful way in breaking down the barriers. The governmental obstacles interposed by the heathen nations have successfully been removed—partly through internal revolution and partly through external pressure; partly by advances of commerce and the quickening of thought, and partly by mighty throes that have shaken the world, until the masses of Asia, and of Africa, and of the islands of the sea are almost as open to the Christian missionary as are the non-church-going multitudes in so-called Christian lands. At this very date we seem to be witnessing the completion of this work in the far East, in the great conflict between Japan and China, that is already throwing wide open the gates of the Hermit Nation, and that promises to shatter the walls that have hitherto barred the way of Christian civilization to most of the four hundred million inhabitants of the Flowery Kingdom. In the papal world, on the western continent, from Mexico to Patagonia, and on the eastern continent, in Italy, Spain, Austria, and the other leading Roman Catholic nations, the religious changes that have taken place in the same period have opened vast and inviting mission fields to Protestant Christianity.

Men of this generation have seen the lines of traffic and intercourse, with power of magnetism, steam, and electricity, reach out over the earth until the network of inter-communication has become well-nigh complete. The Suez Canal and the trans-continental and international railway and steamship lines have brought Christianity right to the open doors of all the world.

The lines of travel that under the control of Protestant nations pass through the straits of Gibraltar and the Suez Canal to the great East, and those that are to be found in connection with the steamers on the great rivers, together with the great Indian and other railways, carry those who take them right to the doors of nine hundred millions of the human race who need the greater light that shines out from the open Bible—to the doors of all the great representative papal nations, Portugal, Spain, France, Italy, Austria; of all the representative Mohammedan nations, the Barbary States, the two Turkeys, Egypt, Nubia, the Soudan and Eastern Africa, Arabia, Persia; and of all the representative pagan nations, Afghanistan, Beloochistan, Hindostan, India, Farther China, Japan, Korea, and the inhabitants of the almost innumerable islands of the Pacific Ocean.

Every one will be ready to admit that this new route has vast significance for the commerce of the future, but the Christian cannot help seeing that it will not have less for the church in its work; for the very steamships that bear the traffic of the world along the Mediterranean, up the Nile, the Euphrates, the Indus, the Ganges, the Brahmapootra, the Irrawaddy, the Cambodia, the Yangtse-Kiang, and the Hoang-Ho, into the very heart, nay, to the remotest bounds, of all these great nations, are ready to bear the missionaries of the church to the same regions. The man of most exalted imagination can have but an inadequate view of the vast import, to the cause of Christ, of this new step in the onward movement of providence.

Viewed in its relation to the population of the globe, its bearings appear no less striking and important than when viewed in its relations to the nationalities. Estimating the total population of the globe in round numbers at fifteen hundred millions, more than nine hundred millions are found along this great thoroughfare! Of the remaining millions, the one half, along Northern Europe and Asia, are under the control of the Protestant and Greek Churches. The remaining millions inhabit the portions of

America and Africa peculiarly under the moral influence of the United States and Great Britain.

Let the fact be emphasized, then, that the Protestant churches, with all their new facilities for giving the world the Gospel, *now for the first time in history* stand foremost at every one of the open doors of the world. A single month will soon suffice to place a band of missionaries far within the bounds of the most remote of these nations.

The inquiry forces itself upon every one who gives this subject a moment's thought: What does it all mean? This almost incomprehensible increase in the facilities for propagating the Gospel among the unevangelized races, and the giving of them all into the hands of the leading Protestant states—do not these provinces point Protestant Christians to a special duty? The creation of these facilities within the memory of men still living—does it not point to *present duty*?

Before the imperious demands of commerce the reluctant monarchs of the earth have withdrawn the barriers of government, and thrown open the portals of their nations to the trade of Christendom, and the missionary of the church has to-day *practically free access with the Gospel to all the nations of the earth*. The commission of the preacher requires him, therefore, to announce and to demonstrate to the slow-going church that she is henceforth barred from pleading, as an excuse for her delay in evangelizing the world, that impassable governmental barriers block the way of her messengers. That excuse has been shown to be no longer valid at the bar of reason, and it must be worse than vain at the bar of God.

[October 18.]

CHRISTIANS have in the past pleaded their poverty as a reason for not literally obeying Christ's last command. They have often claimed that proper provision for the present necessities of life and the need of "laying by something against a rainy day" have exhausted their means and left nothing—at best a mere pittance—to give to the work of missions at home and abroad, for

the saving of mankind. That this has usually been little more than a mere hypocritical pretext the past experience of such bodies of Christians as the Moravians¹ clearly shows. The time has now fully come when the preacher needs to show the Christian Church, beyond possibility of gainsaying, that the state of things on which she based her old excuse has passed away, and that the theory of Christian giving by which she has directed her conduct has no foundation in the word of God.

Let it be emphasized that it is not the poor church of the past, but the marvelously rich church of to-day that calls for consideration and must set the law and pace for Christian duty in the matter of giving and in the work of the Gospel.

A silent revolution—a revolution almost inconceivable as we look back upon it—that has been going on through the century has resulted in throwing vast wealth into the hands of Christendom, and especially into the hands of Protestant Christendom. The remarkable revolutions of the past fifty years have been so numerous, and so silent, that even the best ecclesiastical statisticians and financiers scarcely understood the full meaning of that rich church and its vast income which so often enter into their calculations.

De Quincey in some curious investigations in his "Biographical Essays" has shown that the dowry that Mary Arden, the mother of Shakespeare, brought to his father, John Shakespeare—the estate amounting at the lowest calculation to £100 and at the highest to £224 and the rent amounting at the lowest to £8 and at the highest to £14—was really a very respectable fortune. In these days, and that even after taking into account the difference in values, so greatly in favor of three centuries ago, such an income would be considered but a beggarly one for the most unskilful bootblack. Only seventy-five years ago, when Coleridge refused a half share in *The Morning Post and Courier*, with the emphatic declaration that he would not give up his country life with the lazy reading of old folios for two thousand times the income

it offered he added: "In short, beyond £350 a year I regard money as a real evil." Yet this would barely meet the wants of a first-class mechanic of the present day.

Manifold causes have wrought in producing an almost fabulous increase in the wealth of the Protestant nations during the present century. One of these is found in the fact that steam furnishes the nervous power and steel the muscle of modern material civilization. The industrial arts have thus been revolutionized. The able-bodied working population of the globe is about 200,000,000; that is, the globe can furnish, in the form of productive manpower, about that number of days' work in a single day. A century ago that constituted the major part of the work that could be done by mankind in a day. At the present time Great Britain alone, by machine power with steam and electricity, is able to do from five to ten times that amount of work, while the United States can probably do even more, and Germany is making rapid advance in the same direction. This development of productive power has been the source of an immense increase of wealth.

Another cause may be found in the commerce that has grown so immensely in consequence of this enlarged productive power and that has made the world chiefly tributary to the leading Protestant nationalities.

A third cause is to be noted in those striking providences that seem to indicate the purpose of God to give the world to Protestant Christendom, among which may be enumerated those that in a century have increased the subjects of the British Empire from 13,000,000 to almost 400,000,000; those that have raised Prussia from the position of an insignificant state to a first place on the map of Europe, at the head of the German Empire with its 50,000,000 of people; and those that have established on these western shores our great republic, with its almost 70,000,000 of free people, mostly Christian and Protestant.

Most marked, perhaps, of all has been the gift of the great gold and silver fields—Australia, California, South Africa, and the

Ural region—to the Protestant or anti-papal nations. If these deposits of the precious metals had been discovered a little earlier they would have gone into the hands of people holding other religions, and would have been used—as the wealth that Spain wrested from Mexico and Peru was used to spread Roman Catholicism—for the dissemination of those other religions. But they were reserved until Protestant Christendom was at the front and had substantial control, and they were then providentially given into the hands of the foremost Protestant Christian nations.

[October 25.]

THERE have been some strange things in connection with the opening up of these vast stores of riches. Dr. Stone gave the writer, several years ago, a little incident learned in connection with the Historical Society in San Francisco that will show how wonderful these providences have sometimes been. Before we had taken California from Mexico, or about that time, the Jesuit fathers became aware, through the Indians, of the fact of the existence of gold mines in that region. They surveyed the mines, prepared their maps, and took ship for Spain just before California came into our hands, to inform the Spanish government and the authorities abroad of their wonderful discovery. But those charts and those fathers were never heard of again! Had they reached the other side Spain would doubtless have grasped California with a firm grip, and would have aided Mexico to hold fast to it, to prevent it from coming into the hands of the United States.

The increase of wealth resulting from these and other causes has almost outrun accurate statistics, and even imagination. So far as we have been able to ascertain by somewhat careful inquiry, an annual income of a million dollars is more common on this side of the ocean now than was an income of fifty thousand half a century ago. Three centuries ago the ransom of the Inca Atahualpa,² paid to that Spanish robber and butcher Pizarro, turned the brain of all Europe by its magnitude; yet it was less

than the annual income of many of our merchant princes as the reward of legitimate business, and hardly a tithe of what many of our speculators manage to get hold of by illegitimate business.

The increase of national wealth in the aggregate has kept pace with that of individual wealth. The material progress of the nation for the two decades from 1850 to 1870 will illustrate the earlier stages of the change. The total wealth of the nation in 1850 was \$7,000,000,000; in 1860 \$16,000,000,000; in 1870, according to the estimate of Special Commissioner Wells, \$23,000,000,000, and according to that of Judge Kelley, member of Congress from Pennsylvania, \$43,000,000,000. The increase in twenty years, during five of which there was expended or wasted in civil war at least \$10,000,000,000, was therefore somewhere from three to sixfold. The gross product of the industry of the country about 1870, which may represent its gross annual income apart from the annual increase of aggregate values just referred to, Mr. Wells estimated at \$6,825,000,000. He proceeds, however, at once to show that this "is an under rather than an overestimate"; and in doing this gives data drawn from the wages of the lowest of the working classes that indicate that \$8,000,000,000 would be a very moderate estimate. These statistics show that the product of the industry of the nation in 1870 equaled or surpassed the entire value of all its property twenty years before. A like marvelous increase took place in the wealth of Great Britain and an almost equal increase in the case of some other nations. The last twenty-five years have witnessed the continuance of this astonishing pace of material prosperity, as might readily be shown by statistics.

In view of these extraordinary facts, the question comes home with overwhelming force, Why has God so flooded the Protestant nations with wealth, and done it in these same years in which the way has been opened for the Gospel into all nations, and Protestant Christendom brought to stand foremost at all these openings?

It cannot be claimed with a shadow of justice, or even a show of plausibility, that this vastly enlarged wealth is required for increased expenses of living. Nor can it be claimed, with any greater show of justice, that either the Scriptures or human experience warrants the hoarding up of these vast sums in private coffers. Mr. Lewis Tappan, well known once as a Christian merchant, and later as secretary of one of the benevolent societies of the country, in his little tract, "Is it Right to be Rich?" gives a forcible exhibition of the teachings of the Scriptures on this subject—an exhibition the acquaintance with which cannot but be helpful, even if one is not prepared to indorse all its presentations. How dangerous this unscriptural hoarding of millions is, to the possessors of great wealth and to their families, any one may learn by observation.

In short, nothing can be clearer than that the Head of the Church has not placed this vast wealth, just at this juncture, in the hands of his stewards, the members of the Christian Church, for the purpose of allowing them to indulge in enervating luxuries without stint, or to pamper their families, or for the purpose of giving them opportunity to store up millions of rusting treasure for their children to use and abuse. If there is any meaning in this wondrous chain of providences, taken together and in connection with the truth of God's absolute ownership of everything and the Christian's stewardship, that meaning must be this: that Christ does not purpose that the thousands of millions of the race for whom his blood was shed shall perish without the Gospel; and that, moreover, he has rolled upon the church of this very time the responsibility of furnishing the entire pecuniary means requisite for the work in its completeness, at home and abroad, the world over. He who has the authority, given him by the Father, to call for the gold at *any time*, calls *now*. Can the church, and especially its opulent members, give a valid reason for not furnishing the Lord's treasure with all that is needed now?—*Daniel S. Gregory, D.D., LL.D.*

CARDINAL RICHELIEU.

BY JAMES BRECK PERKINS.

THE great cardinal Armand Jean du Plessis de Richelieu was born on September 9, 1585, at Paris. His family belonged in Poitou and were of ancient though not illustrious lineage. The Du Plessis took their name from their home in that province, and were gentlemen who had long borne an active part in local broils and in the French civil wars. They were good fighters, often known for deeds of cruelty as well as of bravery; hardy, enterprising, viewing the world as their oyster to be opened, active partisans, with bold hearts and heavy hands, and they made their way to a certain prominence, though gaining more titles than wealth.

The father of the cardinal followed the fortunes of Henry III. and after his death he at once espoused the cause of Henry IV. From that monarch he received a certain degree of favor and was captain of the guards and provost marshal. But in 1690, when he was only forty-two, his stormy career of brawls and warfare was closed. He left a widow with five children, of whom Armand was the third son.

The children lived with their mother in the family *château*¹ of Richelieu, a building which went back to the time of the Hundred Years' War. Erected for purposes of defense as well as of residence, it was flanked with eight stout towers, surrounded by a fosse, and it looked over a flat and fertile country. In later years the cardinal reconstructed the home of his infancy, and made it one of the most magnificent *châteaux* in France.

At the age of nine Armand was sent to Paris to receive his education at the College of Navarre, and there he pursued the studies upon which the youthful mind was then fed, much Latin, grammar and philosophy. The discipline was strict and when in his days of power and glory the cardinal was sometimes visited by his former preceptor he tells us

that he always saw him enter with a slight sensation of fear. Young Du Plessis was intended for the army; he inherited the warlike tastes and the dauntless courage of his ancestors and had a natural fondness for the profession of arms. Even in later years, when he wore the robes of the church, he loved to plan campaigns and advise generals, and at heart he was always more of a soldier than a priest.

The destiny of the young Armand was suddenly changed by one of the domestic arrangements frequent in that day. Henry III., as a reward for the services of Richelieu's father, had granted to the family the right to bestow the bishopric of Luçon. Such gifts were not rare, and the patronage of ecclesiastical preferments was a means of paying faithful servants when money was scarce. This was not always for the spiritual interests of the diocese; the Du Plessis confined their attention to laying hold of the emoluments of the bishopric, and the nominal holders of the see did not concern themselves with the affairs of the flock. The procedure was unsatisfactory to the church officials; even if they were willing to do without a bishop, they complained that the family took the revenues and would not make the repairs necessary to preserve the religious buildings, and from these quarrels lawsuits arose. Fearful of the results of litigation Madame de Richelieu resolved to confer the office on one of her sons, and a brother of Armand, then only twelve years of age, was declared the titular bishop of Luçon. When the brother became older he refused to be a party to this arrangement, and thereupon it was decided in the family councils that Armand must fill the see.

To this he agreed; he forthwith turned his attention to the necessary theological studies and at twenty-one was duly nominated by Henry IV. as Bishop of Luçon. He still lacked five years of the canonical age, but

this difficulty was removed: Richelieu visited Rome and obtained the confirmation of the pope, his enemies said by means of false certificates as to his age, and when only twenty-three he took possession of his office.

The episcopal duties he performed with reasonable fidelity, though they were little to his taste. The diocese was small and its revenues were scanty. The episcopal seat was in the midst of a flat, unhealthy country, inhabited by a miserable peasantry; "I have the worst bishopric in France," he wrote a friend—"the dirtiest and the most disagreeable."

He soon found an opportunity to play a part on a greater stage than an obscure bishopric. In 1614 the States-General² convened at Paris; it was twenty-one years since they had met, and they were to hold no other session until the Revolution. Richelieu was chosen one of the delegates of the clergy and was the spokesman of his order when the *cahiers*³ were presented to the king at the close of the session. He had now gained a certain political position and he found this more attractive than ministering to his flock at Luçon; he remained at Paris and in 1616 he was chosen as a secretary of state.

Louis XIII. was then a youth of only fifteen, and his mother, Mary de Medici, the widow of Henry IV., was the real head of the government, but the queen mother herself was under the control of an Italian adventurer named Concini,⁴ who perhaps was her lover and certainly was her master. He was a weak and corrupt man, but by the queen's favor he had become Marshal d'Ancre and the prime minister of France. Under such auspices did Richelieu make his entrance into public life. His tenure of office was brief: in 1617 the young king resolved to take the power into his own hands; Concini was murdered, the queen exiled from the court, and Richelieu was reluctantly obliged to follow her fortunes.

He was not long kept in retirement. He preserved the favor of the queen and at the same time intrigued with success to obtain the confidence of the young king's advisers. In 1622 he was made a cardinal, in 1624 he

was again called to the king's council, and a year later he was made prime minister. No one suspected the career that awaited him; he was thought to be able, unscrupulous, and faithful to his own interests, even when those required him to be false to his friends. All this was true but when he had at last obtained the power for which he had intrigued so long only death could loosen his iron grasp of it; for seventeen years the history of Richelieu is the history of France.

The greatest statesman that France has produced was not loved by her people; though he did much to increase the power and glory of his country, never was he dear to his countrymen. A stern, unwavering man, he was hated by the nobility, whose turbulence he checked and many of whose members he sent to the block, and to the common people he seemed a ruler under whom wars were frequent and taxes were heavy; king, noble, and peasant experienced a common feeling of relief when the great cardinal was no more.

Power in those days did not indeed rest upon the favor of the public but on that of the king, and in preserving his influence over Louis XIII. Richelieu had a task more difficult than that of the modern statesman who seeks to hold the good will of a fickle populace. The sovereign recognized the qualities of his minister, but he did not love him; he was jealous of the authority which the cardinal exercised and impatient of the dominion exerted by a strong man over a weak one. "Your majesty," said the minister to his sovereign, "is extremely suspicious, jealous, susceptible to passing aversions and to variable humors and inclinations."

During all his long ministry the cardinal was in constant apprehension of overthrow by some revolution of the palace. The queen mother felt that the man she had elevated to power proved an ingrate when he had obtained it, and she pursued Richelieu with a fierce though impotent hatred. The cardinal drove her from France and she died in exile. The royal confessors tried to use their influence over the superstitious king

in order to obtain the overthrow of a minister who, they said, was involving the sovereign in danger of perdition by making war on Catholic states; but the cardinal penetrated the secrets of the confessional and the intriguing priests were dismissed in disgrace. Perhaps his greatest danger came from two women for whom Louis had a platonic affection. They besought the king to dismiss the stern and bloody minister who kept his mother in exile, his kingdom in war, and sent members of the noblest families in France to the block. But the minister discovered their intrigues, he warned the king against the devices of women and the deadly perils of such relations; one of the favorites was sent to a convent and the other was banished from court. Thus the cardinal withstood all his enemies and in 1742 he died at the age of fifty-seven, in the great palace he had built, in the full possession of power and place and wealth. "If there be a God," said the pope when he heard of the cardinal's death, "he will have to suffer; but if not, he has done well."

Certainly he had done well for France, and his dying words were justified: he had no enemies but those of the state. It was due to Richelieu more than any other man that France obtained the position of overshadowing influence upon the Continent which she occupied during two centuries. He did not change the nature of French institutions, but he consolidated the system he found and he made the French monarchy a thoroughly organized and powerful government.

When the cardinal assumed office he found two great obstacles to the vigorous action of the general government—the unruly power of the Huguenot party and the turbulence of the great nobility. In his treatment of the Huguenots Richelieu deserves only praise. Though a Catholic he was not a bigot; no man would have protested with more energy against the dragonnades⁵ and the revocation of the edict of Nantes.⁶ He wished both Protestants and Catholics to enjoy the protection of the law, but he was resolved that both alike should yield obedience to the law.

In the early part of the seventeenth century the Huguenot party was a menace to the peace and unity of the kingdom. As a result of long religious struggles they had preserved a system of circles and synods in which they undertook not only to regulate matters of faith, but if they deemed it wise, to raise armies and to declare war; they had their generals as well as their priests. Such an organization had been required for their protection during the wars of the League⁷ but it was not necessary when the edict of Nantes had secured them a full measure of toleration under the protection of the state. From the death of Henry IV. France was constantly distracted by insurrections and civil wars of more or less importance. There was no justification for these outbreaks; they were usually instigated by some powerful nobleman, ill content with the share he received of the government's favors, yet the Huguenots had shown a willingness to take part in such movements and to become a ready tool for ambitious leaders.

In 1727 the last Huguenot insurrection resulted in the overthrow of the Huguenots as a political party. During almost a year the memorable siege of La Rochelle showed alike the heroic endurance of the defendants and the indomitable persistence of the cardinal. But the Protestants could not resist the military forces of the kingdom, when they were in the hands of a determined man. La Rochelle surrendered and this great stronghold of the Protestant party was taken from them. The fortified towns which they held for their protection were dismantled, the king refused any longer to make treaties with a portion of his subjects as one sovereign might sign a compact with another, the Huguenots were forced to submit to the royal mercy and to the authority of the general government.

Their political importance was forever destroyed; to use a modern phrase, they went out of politics. But in no way were their religious privileges interfered with, the rights secured by the edict of Nantes were theirs still, they could worship God according to their own consciences, they

could pursue their avocations undisturbed, they were entitled to preferment as were other subjects of the king. Nor was this an empty right. Both Richelieu and Mazarin⁸ looked upon Catholics and Protestants with equal favor; Huguenot marshals commanded in the army, Huguenot ministers were found in the council, and the forty years following the submission of the Huguenots under Richelieu were for them a period of rest, of peace, and of prosperity. They were no longer the tools of ambitious leaders or unwise enthusiasts, they were no longer found in arms against the king, they prayed and prospered in tranquillity.

There were other tasks for the cardinal to perform. "I promised your majesty," he wrote Louis, "to use all my industry and power to ruin the Huguenot party, to lower the pride of the nobles, lead all subjects to their duty, and restore the country's name among foreign nations." France had passed the feudal period when Richelieu assumed office, but many of the great nobles still exercised an unruly authority and the years that followed Henry IV.'s death were filled with insurrections against the general government. While they brought misery to the citizens and made France an unimportant factor in European politics, the leaders who instigated them had found in them little danger and much profit. A petty civil war was usually ended by a copious distribution of places and pensions among those who at last consented to be bribed into tranquillity. With the rule of the iron cardinal came a different order of things. It was soon found that there was no one in France so powerful or so popular that he could with impunity take up arms against his king. The reward of turbulence was no longer a marshal's baton or a princely pension, but exile or the block. Marshal Marillac was executed, the head of the great family of Montmorenci suffered death on the scaffold, the Duke of Bouillon⁹ saved his life by sur-

rendering his sovereignty of Sedan to the king.

Certainly the cardinal was remorseless, and no appeals for pity could move that iron will, but he acted in the true interests of France. He destroyed not liberty but license. Except the troubles of the Fronde,¹⁰ France was to be free from the worst of evils, civil war and internal disorder; no noble, however illustrious in rank, however intrenched in the affection of his followers, any longer contemplated waging war upon his sovereign.

Having thus secured tranquillity at home, Richelieu could exert the full power of France abroad, and she assumed the position of leader among European states. The slow decline of Spain had already begun and she was no longer that mighty empire which had awed the world under Charles V. Austria seemed the most dangerous rival of France and the cardinal was deterred by no religious scruples from espousing the cause of the Protestant princes in the Thirty Years' War. During all the later years of his rule French blood and treasure flowed unsparingly in defense of the minor German states and to check the overshadowing influence of Austria. It was no idle waste of lives and treasure. Richelieu was not to see the fruit of his labors, but the treaty of Westphalia not only secured Alsace for France, but it obtained for her an influence in Germany hardly inferior to that of Austria, it prevented a union of smaller states under Austria's leadership, which would have checked the French growth, it rendered possible the acquisition of Franche-Comté and Artois and Roussillon.¹¹

Richelieu stands in the history of France as Bismarck will stand in that of Germany, a man of unswerving purpose, knowing no scruples in advancing his country's interests, and possessing in the highest degree the qualities of the statesman—prophetic vision, unflinching sagacity, and an iron will.

THE GEOGRAPHICAL POSITION OF FRANCE.

BY PROFESSOR CHARLES F. A. CURRIER, M.A.

OF THE MASSACHUSETTS INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY.

THERE was a time in the course of his wonderful career when the other sovereigns of Europe, if we may speak of them as sovereigns, offered the first Napoleon the Rhine as the eastern boundary of France; but his ambition was not thus to be satisfied, for although, at that moment, his fortunes had begun to wane, he still held sway, directly or indirectly, over an empire greater than that of Charlemagne of a thousand years before. Eventually Napoleon was subdued, and France was contracted essentially to her boundaries of 1789. Those boundaries, plus the gains and minus the losses due to the third Napoleon, are practically the boundaries of to-day.

To reach the Rhine has long and often been the dream and the effort of the French; hope is not entirely lost yet, though now there is probably no longer any thought, even on the part of the most ardent, of including Belgium and southern Holland in their aspirations. This longing for the Rhine is not entirely without reason. France occupies in the modern world much the same relations to the rest of Western Europe as did Gaul in the ancient world, and the limits of Gaul were virtually those proposed to Napoleon I. One might be inclined to think, too, that the Rhine is a much more "natural" boundary than the more or less arbitrary line which divides France from her eastern neighbors; on all other sides the borders of France are less artificial—the Alps and Pyrennes, the Mediterranean, the Atlantic, and the English Channel. Was not, like these, the Rhine also designed by nature to constitute a geographical limit?

But what is a "natural boundary," a term so often employed by historical writers? Surely there is nothing "natural" about the degrees of latitude and longitude

which separate some of our states; scarcely more "natural" is the line between Spain and Portugal, or between Holland and Belgium. That oceans and seas afford easily understood boundaries requires no demonstration. Mountain ranges, likewise, are generally excellent divisional lines, partly because in the course of normal and orderly European migration and settlement the regions on the two sides have as a rule been occupied by different races and peoples, partly because these mountains keep the respective nations well apart and thus prevent much of the friction, jealousy, and rivalry which might lead to war and conquest, and partly because both for attack and for defense mountains offer about the same measure of advantage and of difficulty to those on the one side of them as to those on the other.

On all her borders but one, therefore, France would seem to be favorably bounded. Would her well-nigh ideal boundaries be made absolutely perfect if she could stretch to the left bank of the Rhine? This is no purely academic question, because France still smarts under the loss of Alsace-Lorraine, a loss to which she is not, and apparently never will be, reconciled. If those provinces were ever recovered as the result of a decisive victory over Germany, she might demand not simply their restoration but also, as a compensation for her humiliation and for the enormous war indemnity of 1871, the cession of all the rest of Germany lying west of the Rhine.

Some of the most authoritative military writers, however, maintain that a river, contrary to the popular notion, is not a "natural" boundary. They urge, in brief, that the interests of the dwellers on the two sides are so largely in common that there is less likelihood of commercial and political contention if the same nation controls both

banks. So far as the Rhine is concerned it may well be argued that even in case France attained her most extreme desires and wrested from her rival everything up to that river, this conquered territory could be retained only with the utmost difficulty, if at all, since the mass of its inhabitants are so thoroughly German in race and language and sympathy.

Even now France is far the weakest on her German frontier. With Spain she is on good terms, and from her, moreover, she is well protected by the Pyrenees. The neutrality of Belgium and of Switzerland has been guaranteed by the European powers. The maritime frontiers are excellent for defense, since troops can be landed at certain points only, the ports; aside from the defenses of these ports, in these days of railways and telegraphs a country can keep informed of the movements of its enemy, and is able rapidly to move its troops to this or that port before any considerable force can be disembarked and made ready for action. On the Italian side the Alps intervene; and while there is still much bad blood between France and Italy, who ought on many accounts to be friendly instead of semi-hostile, a war of these two nations on each other is hardly probable, except as it might arise out of Italy's partnership in the Triple Alliance or out of a general European struggle.

Finally, it is with Germany that France is inconsolably grieved; so long as the loss of Alsace-Lorraine rankles, just so long is the peace of Europe threatened. In the event of the outbreak of hostilities Germany's objective point would be, as it was in 1870, Paris; and to Paris a German army has two easy roads, one by way of Metz and another through the southern end of Lorraine, while a third, and somewhat more difficult opening is through the territory of Belfort—Belfort whose retention by France was Bismarck's sole concession from his original territorial demands in 1871.

The military geography of France has been dwelt upon at this length because it is generally accepted that at least one more

violent upheaval must take place in Europe before national boundaries and international disputes can become definitively adjusted.

Within her own borders, too, France offers a favorable field to the enemy once successfully invading and getting a foothold there. One half of France is less than 650 feet above sea level; and there are no mountain peaks in the interior that are higher than about 6,000 feet, while most are much lower. Such a country is easily overrun; as it possesses, too, a dense population and a fertile soil, the invading troops could sustain themselves with little difficulty. In the present state of European politics, with Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy formally bound together, with England in many respects largely in sympathy with them, though not openly joined, while on her own part able to look to Russia alone as a possible, perhaps probable, ally, France can scarcely hope to do more than preserve herself intact, without aiming to recover her lost possessions and wreaking vengeance on her dearest foe.

The geography of France, like that of most other countries, has not been based upon the working out of scientific principles nor upon the development of carefully devised plans and projects, but has been the outgrowth of the course of history, chiefly the gains and losses of war, and only slightly the fruits of peace. Most important of all, looked at through a long stretch of time, has been the connection between France and England, a relationship whose influence has been marked for both countries. The conquest of England by the Normans brought England into closer contact with the Continent, vastly lessened her insularity, and laid the foundations of a continental and world-wide influence which might otherwise never have been hers.

At one time England controlled fully one half of France, but at the close of the Hundred Years' War in 1453 she lost nearly all her French possessions, though her monarchs continued to style themselves kings of France for several centuries afterward. Although England lost her foothold in

France itself, she succeeded in the last century in wresting from France the most important of her colonial possessions, she was the principal antagonist of France in the Napoleonic wars, and on some occasions since then she has been less cordial in her relations than France thought she merited. Accordingly the feeling between the two countries, at least on one side, is not most warm.

With the exception of the understanding which is supposed to exist with Russia, France is practically without powerful friends; how much or how little the Russian affiliation may mean is most uncertain. It would seem, therefore, to be the part of wisdom for France to shun foreign wars and to concentrate her energies on her internal development, on building up the colonial empire which she has founded anew in Africa and Asia, and, so far as she may, on extending throughout the civilized world a powerful influence for good in art, literature, and learning. How is it, then, with France in her non-political relations?

We of the United States, who measure distances by thousands of miles, scarcely appreciate the limited areas of some of the European nations whose names are on our lips every day. England, who received Christianity nine hundred years before the discovery of America, whose present reigning house can trace its ancestry back through nearly forty generations of kings and princes to Alfred the Great and beyond, the country which for hundreds of years has played a larger part in the world's history than any other nation of the earth—this England is smaller than any one of more than a score of our states. France is larger, and yet not large—one fifteenth the area of the United States, excluding Alaska, about three fourths as extensive as Texas, a little more than four times the size of New York, almost precisely equivalent to the four states Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin. France, too, is one of the few countries of enormous historical importance. To-day her population seems to have reached its maximum; a new impetus to colonial expansion has, to be sure, been

given, but these colonies are in the main so situated as to be capable, for a long time, if not forever, of adding little to the strength or prestige of the mother country; so that one may reasonably incline to believe that the international political influence of France is likely, compared with that of several other leading powers, to grow less and less. Her importance in other directions, however, may not, and, one may trust, will not, correspondingly decline.

France is situated directly east of that portion of North America lying between Massachusetts and northern Newfoundland; but how different the climate! Washington, D. C., is ten degrees of latitude south of Paris, but its mean winter temperature is two degrees colder; the average spring and fall temperatures, as well as the mean temperature for the year, are almost precisely the same for Paris as for San Francisco, eleven degrees farther south, while in summer Paris is five degrees cooler than Boston.

At one extremity washed by the cold North Sea, on another side by the mild Atlantic, and on the south by the warm Mediterranean, while in two directions hemmed in by mountains with tops of perpetual snow, France enjoys a variety of climate entirely out of proportion to her area; consequently she raises a great diversity of agricultural products, such as wheat, oats, corn, and potatoes, flax and hemp, olives, figs, and the mulberry, while lemons, oranges, and dates are also grown, but do not as a rule ripen to perfection. The variety of climate is aided and supplemented by the prevailing winds and rainfall in different sections of the country. In both these respects there is a marked difference between the Atlantic seaboard and the Mediterranean coast; and this again is to be considered in connection with the interior conformation. A line drawn from the northern extremity of the Vosges¹ to the western end of the Pyrenees divides France into two quite distinct parts topographically; nearly all the elevations of any note are to be found in the southerly section while the northern is scarcely any-

where broken by mountains reaching even 2,000 feet in height.

In percentage of productive area—field and garden land, woods, meadows, and pastures—France with her 94 per cent ranks, among European countries, next to Holland, the highest, with 96 per cent; in field and garden land alone she stands second to Belgium only, with 49 per cent thus cultivated. That so large a share of France is brought under cultivation is due partly to the density of population, but more specifically to the laws of inheritance which discourage large holdings.

The small holdings, on the other hand, are a distinct advantage in some of the principal agricultural products, as, for example, the grape culture, for which individual attention is specially necessary; for France, as is well known, is the largest wine-producing country in the world. But it is not so generally known that France is likewise one of the leading growers of wheat; she has ranked next to the United States, though in the past few years Russia has forged slightly ahead of her, and occasionally India presses close behind, not because France is raising less than formerly but because Russia and India are raising more. With one tenth the population and one seventeenth the area of Europe, France grows more than one fifth of the total European wheat crop. In yield per acre she is distinctly inferior to England, but this is because the prevalence of small holdings in France causes wheat to be grown on much land not specially adapted to it, while in England it is confined to soil particularly suitable.

In mineral resources France is poorly provided for. She has little or no gold, silver, mercury, and platinum; only small deposits of nickel, tin, lead, zinc, and copper; a supply of coal inadequate to her needs; valuable iron mines, but these are so far removed from the coal fields that their value is thereby greatly diminished. In some respects this separation is extremely unfortunate; and yet it is to be borne in mind that the French have never shown themselves so competent in the

coarser manufactures as have the English, Germans, and Americans; hence the lack of coal and the separateness of the coal and iron supplies do not militate so strongly against national prosperity as they would in these other countries.

The genius of the Frenchman is for finer manufactures, for the production of goods in which taste, skill, and deftness are brought into play. Hence we look to France for millinery and fashions, for gloves, laces, and trimmings, for gold and silver plate and for jewelry, for the best surgical, mathematical, and astronomical instruments, for fancy leather goods, for perfumery and toilet soaps, for *articles de Paris*, for the most noted wines and the finest silks of the world, for the porcelain of Limoges,² for the famed art pottery of Sèvres,³ for the unrivaled Gobelin⁴ tapestries.

To bring the different parts of the country into relations with one another, France is provided with a magnificent organization of natural and artificial internal communications. Not only does she possess four admirable river systems, the Seine, Loire, Gironde, and Rhone, but she has supplemented these by connecting them and their branches by means of a series of canals, adding in this way more than fifty per cent to her water navigation. It is a curious fact that France continued the vigorous construction of canals and delayed the serious building of railroads for many years after railroads had in England demonstrated their practicability as improved means of transportation.

Similarly France was also behind England in the eighteenth century in the introduction of cotton, woolen, and iron manufactures, and in the application of steam thereto. These facts may illustrate somewhat the less "practical" nature of the French character, and help explain why in certain fields it finds itself unable to contend successfully against its English, American, and German competitors. Even in the construction of her railway lines one seems to detect a touch of the sentimental; just as in art, literature, learning, and politics all France is centralized and concentrated

at Paris, so too in the laying out of the network of railways all the main lines save one center there. These lines radiate off in various directions and are connected by a series of cross lines, so that these all together present roughly the appearance of a spider's web.

France is most admirably located for engaging advantageously in the world's trade. On one side of her is the first commercial nation, England; on another, Germany, who is sending her wares to every quarter of the globe and constantly opening new markets; one coast affords a terminus for the great Atlantic highway, while the opposite looks out upon the trade of the Mediterranean, and of the East through the Suez Canal, the work of French genius. Marseilles at present, however, suffers somewhat by reason of better Italian connections with Northern Europe, but with easily provided transportation facilities this city, founded twenty-five hundred years ago and memorable throughout nearly the whole of the intervening period, might, perhaps, almost become a second Venice.

What then, in a word, is the position of France to-day? In the first place, it is to be noted that the population is now stationary, or indeed it would be diminishing were it not for immigration. There are more than one million foreign-born, chiefly Belgians and Italians, living in France, whereas the emigration from the country is very slight indeed, averaging only nine thousand a year during the last forty years. It is sometimes argued that the low birth-rate is due to the maintenance of a large standing army and to the celibacy of a large—extremely large—body of priests and nuns. But these are, at best, only secondary causes, and, it might be added, one or both of these factors are to be found in countries of high birth-rates. The chief explanation is to be sought in the Frenchman's desire to leave his offspring well provided for; and as the laws of inheritance very strictly limit his freedom in the disposition of his property he finds his only safeguard in small families.

In the movement of population within

the country it is found that though the same complaint is made in France as in other countries, that the rural regions are becoming depopulated to build up the cities, the evil is not so marked as elsewhere. Of the ten cities having a population of more than one hundred thousand, Marseilles is the only one that made a substantial gain between 1891 and 1896; none of these ten cities lost, but four of them recorded an increase of less than four thousand each.

That the urban population is not more rapidly gaining at the expense of the rural is most fortunate, since the future of France seems likely to depend so largely upon an agricultural basis. For at the beginning of the century France reckoned one fifth of the population of Europe, while now only one tenth; add to this the fact that until comparatively recently two of her neighbors, Germany and Italy, toward both of whom she entertains no over-kindly feelings, were only "geographical expressions," made up of a mass of weak and unconnected states, while now they constitute two powerful nations, united to each other and with Austria-Hungary in a strong defensive alliance.

Again, though enjoying a varied climate and a fertile soil, together with many advantages of location and means of communication, though her people are frugal and rich, France is burdened with the heaviest debt and the largest annual budget of any country in the world. In the face of the present European political conditions, both local and international, she could hardly justify herself in precipitating, or even in refraining from doing her utmost to avoid, a conflict of arms. Nor is she likely, for the present at least, to play a leading part in the diplomacy of peace. Her best hope, her largest success, her most valuable contribution to the service of the world will consist, on the one hand, in developing her natural resources and the material well-being of her own people, and, on the other hand, a still nobler devotion, in adding, as she is still capable of doing, to the arts, the graces, the humanities, the intellectual advancement of mankind.

THE RISE AND FALL OF NEW FRANCE.

BY PROFESSOR FREDERICK J. TURNER, PH.D.

PROFESSOR OF AMERICAN HISTORY IN THE UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

I.

THE story that opens with Cartier and closes with Montcalm is one of the most picturesque and dramatic in history. When the Norman and Breton fishing fleets followed Cabot to the Grand Banks,¹ and began traffic with the natives on the shores of St. Lawrence gulf, they found the key to the interior of North America. This determined the destiny of New France. The water systems of the St. Lawrence, the Great Lakes, and the Mississippi interlace with each other and form a labyrinth that drew the French fur traders and Jesuit missionaries onward, revealed to them the vastness of this imperial domain, and seduced them into an attempt to seize and hold a continent with hardly more than a handful of men. On the lower St. Lawrence and about the mouth of the Mississippi French settlements grew up, which tended to slip away along the shining river courses into the wilderness. The *voyageurs*² seized the strategic points for trade and war—the straits between the lakes and the portages between the rivers; they made friends with the Indians, traded, danced, and married with them, but left no deep or permanent impression on the interior.

French ideals of colonization and social and political organization furnished a sharp contrast to those of the English, who had settled between the Alleghany Mountains and the Atlantic. In the course of the eighteenth century these settlements gradually spread along the coast and contested with the French the fisheries off the St. Lawrence; crossing the mountains to the western waters, they contended for the possession of the fur trade. The colonial systems of France and England became involved in that new hundred years' war which opened with the war between Louis XIV. and William of Orange and closed with the

defeat of Napoleon. In America the struggle of the colonial powers resulted in the eviction of France from the New World, followed by the independence of the United States.

The catastrophe of the French rule in America was as complete as its development had been extensive and picturesque. By the passage of the Quebec Act³ England recognized and perpetuated the French element in Canada as a self-conscious people with survivals of French law and ideals. By the acquisition of Louisiana the United States was met with a like problem, which it solved by extending American institutions to the inhabitants and assimilating them. The lesser settlements were soon engulfed in the flood of the pioneers, although the *voyageurs* and French-Indian half-breeds found a place in American exploring expeditions, and as boatmen and packmen for fur companies in the West. In parts of the Great Lake basin the old French life went on until the end of the first third of the present century. In the meantime Louis XIV. had driven the Protestant French, the Huguenots, to migrate in considerable numbers to America, and from this stock came some of the most distinguished political leaders in the United States. More recently many Canadian French have been immigrating, particularly to New England, and abundantly proving the persistence of the French as factors in our national life.

Such, in outline, are the main movements in the history of the French element in America. To the unfolding of the rise and fall of New France Parkman has devoted about a dozen brilliant and fascinating volumes, while Roosevelt has briefly portrayed the aspects of French settlement in the United States at the time when the stalwart frontiersmen seized the lands beyond the Alleghanies. Gayarré has presented the history of the French in Louisiana, and

Baird the history of the French Huguenots. Winsor's "Cartier to Frontenac" and "Mississippi Basin" give an excellent view of French exploration; while the fourth and fifth volumes of the "Narrative and Critical History of America," under his editorship, contain an extensive citation of the authorities. The original material for the study of the work of the fur traders and official explorers is chiefly in Margry's great collection of "Mémoires et documents" and the "Jesuit Relations" are becoming accessible to English readers in the reprint and translation now publishing under the editorship of Mr. R. G. Thwaites. Writers of historical fiction, like Gilbert Parker, Conan Doyle, and Mrs. Catherwood, have dealt with the French period in a way to attract as well as to inform the reader.

In so vast a field no more can be attempted in this article than to suggest the principal features of the movement down to the fall of New France, and to touch upon its relations to the main current of French history.

In the lull between the wars of Francis I. and Charles V. two French corsairs had laid the basis of the claims of France to America. Verrazano⁴ had skirted a great extent of its coast and Cartier (1535) had ascended the St. Lawrence to the rapids above Montreal. That France did not continue these explorations and build up permanent settlements in the sixteenth century was largely due to the civil wars that distracted her energies in the period when English seamen like Drake and Gilbert were contesting the monopoly of Spain in the New World and the Dutch were waging their war of liberation. It was in these troubled times that the admiral Coligny⁵ made his futile attempt to plant Huguenot settlements at Port Royal in South Carolina and on the St. John's River. The butchery of the last colony by Menendez,⁶ the Spaniard, in 1565 ended this attempt at Protestant colonization under French authority. The Huguenot wars were closed by the conversion of Henry of Navarre to the Catholic faith, and France found itself united under this energetic monarch and ready for

colonial enterprises at the very time when the defeat of the Spanish Armada, in 1588, by the English seamen opened the ocean to the colonizing fleets of England, Holland, and France. The result appears in the planting of Jamestown, New Amsterdam, and Quebec.

Champlain's services, beginning in 1603 and ending with his death on Christmas day, 1635, mark the first period of successful French settlement. He acted in the service of monopolists of the fur trade, but was himself the life of the colony. Among the fruits of his labors were the foundation of Quebec at the bold headland which commands the lower St. Lawrence, and Montreal where the Lachine⁷ rapids interrupt navigation, a strategic point for war and trade by its relations to the Ottawa and Lake Champlain. The latter lake he explored and named at about the same time that Hudson, in the service of the Dutch, was ascending the river that bears his name. By setting the French in opposition to the Iroquois, who dominated the region of New York, Champlain paved the way for a long and bitter struggle. The water system of the Hudson, the Mohawk, and Lake Champlain taps the system of the Great Lakes and the St. Lawrence, and thus opens a route to the interior. Natural hostility would seem to have been decreed between the peoples who held these rival waterways; and so, in fact, we find that the Hurons were the deadly foes of the Iroquois, though of the same stock, and that the Dutch and their successors, the English, grappled with the French, as afterward English and Americans struggled over these avenues to the North and West.

Another important event in the period of Champlain's activity was the advent of the Jesuit priests. Champlain's first missionaries were the gray-robed Recollects, but in 1625 the black robes sent their pioneers, headed by Lallemant and Brébeuf.⁸ The history of the Jesuits is checkered and world-wide, but one of its noblest chapters deals with the heroic devotion of its missionaries in the woods of America. They were appalled at no perils, they shrank from

no toils. Men educated in the learning of their time traversed the gloomy forest, and set up the cross on the farthest shores of the Great Lakes. They lived in the smoky huts and dined on the disgusting food of the savages; torture and burning only called out renewed devotion. Their records of the mission have given us a large part of our knowledge of the early history of New France, and the black-robed priest threading the forest paths has become to many the picture of French exploration. Nevertheless it was not by the Jesuit that the exploration of the Northwest was effected. The fur trader, the wild, daring wood ranger, or *coureur de bois*,⁹ was the pioneer of New France; in his footsteps followed the priest, and the trading post and the mission house, lonely in the interminable forest, are the twin-types of French occupation of the West.

On taking up the administration of France Cardinal Richelieu organized the company of the Hundred Associates to colonize and monopolize the fur trade of New France. At the same time England attempted to relieve the besieged Huguenots of La Rochelle, and a fleet was sent to seize Quebec, for the advantage of the English claim to Nova Scotia. In 1629 Quebec capitulated, only to be restored three years later.

The close of the career of Champlain was marked, also, by the visit of his agent Nicolet to the Sault Ste. Marie¹⁰ and to the Winnebagoes about Green Bay, on Lake Michigan, in the interest of the inter-tribal trade, and in the hope of finding the passage to the Pacific. On his return he reported that if he had proceeded three days farther he would have reached the great waters. What he would have reached is the Wisconsin, a tributary of the Mississippi, but the elusive phantom of a water route to Asia continued to influence French explorers.

By the close of Champlain's activity, therefore, the forces at work in New France might all be seen in embryo: the fur trade was attracting men into the forest, and was made a monopoly; the search for the route to Asia was another impulse to exploration, while the Jesuits had engaged in their heroic, if ineffective, efforts to Christianize the

savages, and the hostility of the Iroquois and the struggle with the English had been begun.

In 1641 the Jesuits Raymbault and Jogues,¹¹ hoping to reach China, followed the path of Nicolet to the Sault Ste. Marie, where Raymbault died—"God diverted his path to heaven," reported the superior. Jogues, vainly endeavoring to placate the Iroquois, was brained with a hatchet. That fierce people, having procured firearms from the Dutch, swept the Hurons from their homes in 1649. Part of the fugitives from the wrath of the Iroquois reached the upper lakes and the Mississippi. Their flight may have induced the voyages of the unlicensed adventurers Radisson and Groseilliers,¹² who, in pursuit of the fur trade, followed the southern shore of Lake Superior to its head in Minnesota, penetrated to Hudson Bay, and returned in 1660. Radisson claims in a previous voyage to have followed the route of the Hurons and to have entered the Mississippi. Their goods being confiscated by the French, the two traders turned to England, where they induced the formation of the Hudson Bay Company.

The career of these men forms a neglected chapter in the history of New France. Aside from their explorations their voyages are important, as leading the way for the missions of Menard, Marquette, and Allouez¹³ along Lake Superior, and as being representative of the large class of *coureurs de bois* who now began to flee from the restraints of civilization to the wilds of the Northwest. Mackinaw was their rendezvous, and they took their furs to Albany or to Montreal as their wishes led them, regardless of the authorities. From all sides, from Indian, trader, and missionary, came rumors of the "great waters" of the interior. The time was ripe for a more systematic organization of the advance of New France, and at this time a number of great men enter the history of New France.

Louis XIV., having taken personal control of his government, appointed the able and energetic Colbert as his minister. The organization of the colonial commerce of

France under the Company of the West was the work of this famous mercantilist. In this period, moreover, two great administrators appear in New France, Talon, the far-reaching intendant, and Frontenac, the masterful governor. The daring and indefatigable La Salle, with his vast designs of trade and exploration, is a third heroic figure in this new era. In 1671, at Sault Ste. Marie, St. Lusson took possession of the West in the name of Louis XIV. La Salle probably explored the Ohio in 1670. Three years later the trader Joliet and Marquette the missionary entered the Mississippi by way of the Fox and Wisconsin and descended it to the mouth of the Arkansas. Rightly concluding that the river flowed into the Gulf of Mexico and that the hope of finding in it a route to the Pacific was not warranted, they returned with their report. With the favor of the governor La Salle established Fort Frontenac on the northeastern shore of Lake Ontario, thus intercepting the fur trade on its way to Montreal, a policy which had before been left to the illegal traders, the *coureurs de bois*. Jesuits and merchants complained as the center of trade receded into the interior. To the former it meant corruption of their converts; to the latter it meant a loss of profit.

It was not long before La Salle conceived the bold design of pushing the depot of trade into the heart of the wilderness. He proposed to gather the Indians into a great colony in the Illinois country, where the furs of the Northwest should be collected and shipped down the Mississippi to a post at its mouth. Thus the two portals to the interior—the Gulf of Mexico and the St. Lawrence gulf—would both be in French possession, with the interior as its trading territory, and the English behind the mountains would be cut off from the West. Meeting appalling misfortunes with superb courage and indefatigable endeavor, La Salle in 1682 succeeded in descending the river to its mouth. But in 1687 he was assassinated by his followers, after having failed to plant a colony at the mouth of the Mississippi. La Salle's extensive plans had

failed, but the idea of holding the great valley did not die out.

A new era of this colonial history was reached when the English revolution of 1688 brought to the throne the antagonist of Louis XIV., William of Orange, for the English monarchy now ceases to be a paid dependent of France, and engages in the century of conflict for the colonial empire of the world. We shall soon consider the steps of this great struggle in New France; but first let us complete our survey of the spread of French exploration and settlement.

Fearful of the entrance of the English traders, who now began to turn their attention to the Great Lakes and the Mississippi as well as to Hudson Bay, the French began to establish stockaded trading posts at the key points of the interior. Thus while Livingston of New York was urging the governor of that colony to fortify Detroit, in order to secure the trade of the Great Lakes, Cadillac¹⁴ in 1701 erected a French post there. In 1699 D'Iberville founded Biloxi to control the mouth of the Mississippi, and by this expedition he barely anticipated the occupation by the English, whom he turned back as they were about to plant a colony. Kaskaskia and Cahokia (1700) were planted on the banks of the Mississippi between the Kaskaskia and Illinois Rivers; at Green Bay was a post controlling the Fox-Wisconsin route; Mackinaw was occupied to guard the passage between lakes Huron and Michigan; and before long the route by way of the Maumee and the Wabash was secured by Fort Vincennes and a fort at the portage, while the St. Joseph was held by another post. Crown Point (1731) guarded Lake Champlain. Lesser posts were scattered throughout the lines of connection between the Great Lakes and the Mississippi. Like most of the other forts, these were palisaded trading posts, where the commandant supported himself and his little garrison by the profits of the fur trade. They were not so much for the protection of French soil as for the management and protection of the Indian trade.

THE LITERARY MOVEMENT IN FRANCE.

BY EDOUARD ROD.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE FRENCH IN "COSMOPOLIS."

THE social type to which the literature of former times appealed was the "respectable man," as defined by La Bruyère and La Rochefoucauld. Holding a middle place between the artisan and the man of wealth, this personage always acted simply, naturally, without guile and without affectation. He boasted of nothing, but he excelled in all his enterprises. The faculties most approved by him were good sense, reason, and good taste—faculties hardly suitable for free flights of genius, but well adapted to the development of talent. With all his defects, he was an excellent reader. His judgment was known to be enlightened and trustworthy. There was some merit in receiving his approbation.

But this "respectable man" disappeared with the society that produced him. He was replaced by a new type that we may be allowed to call the "cultivated man": a personage of freer mind, to whom education supplied the principles that in the other man were natural; a personage of more intellect than character, and this intellect broader and more supple. He too was a good reader. But, like the "respectable man," he existed only in small numbers. And as the writers wrote only for him they wrote for an *élite* clientage. Thus French literature, after being for a century and a half a court literature, remained for another century an aristocratic literature, at least in the intellectual sense of the word.

In the course of this century it has gradually changed its character. A succession of democratic appliances have turned it into another channel. These have been cheap books and illustrated periodicals, penny journals, reading rooms and popular libraries, and the different societies founded for the diffusion of culture among the masses. The literary public has been enormously enlarged; it has become that

vast crowd which the more indulgent call the "great public" and the more morose the "vulgar public." It is with this multitude that the writer of to-day has to reckon. Like the patron of other times, whether a great lord or a celebrated financier, this new master with a thousand heads makes exacting demands that have to be dealt with gently. The public wants to be pleased, interested, amused with coarse adventures and complicated stories; the writer, on the contrary, dreams of developing his own talent. He revolts at the coarseness of the demands made upon him.

And here the question of money plays an essential part. It hardly existed in the literature of other times. M. Zola in a famous article once described to us in pitiable outlines the situation of a writer under the old *régime*. He pictured him in the pay of a patron, treated sometimes as a valet, always dissatisfied with his lot and always complaining. Over against this picture he set a very different one. He showed us a young writer, succeeding early in making an honest living by writing for journals and reviews; then, if fortune favored him a little, achieving a lucrative and brilliant career, just as a painter, a pianist, a hardware dealer, or a lawyer does. His relations with his publishers, once arbitrary, are now regulated by traditions that make of his work a capital yielding an almost regular income. Laws protect his rights even in the most distant countries. He is a business man like the rest. He has no home of his own, it is true, but that will come. From the fact that he easily earns a great deal of money he sees his social position transformed. He has come to cut a figure in society; he is sought for, and is anxious to be sought for. He could not live in an attic any more, even if he had the taste for it. At a

certain moment of his career luxurious furniture, costly curios, and a good cook become for him absolute necessities.

Is it worth while to point out the dangers of such demands? Who has related the story of the unhappy man whose brain was of gold, and who cut off a little piece of it every day? At this rate the ingot is soon used up. The bigger the pieces the sooner they cease. And sometimes the man keeps on cutting when there is nothing more there, until the buyers perceive that what they are getting is not the precious metal. It is true that in many cases they do not perceive this; the name, the tag, is enough for them; they look no further.

When we see with what ardor literary men mingle in social life, we might ask whether there is any place there for a literary life. In asking this question I recall an amusing article that M. de Amicis¹ wrote from Paris, about twelve years ago. In some pictures warmly colored by his imagination he showed us conspicuous literary men meeting every evening in sumptuous *cafés*, breaking off their witty conversations to run and correct their proofs, always animated and dispensing with sprightliness the treasures of their genius to all who came. Does this picture closely resemble the reality? Have we anything to-day that recalls the evenings at Auteuil² in the time of Boileau? Many of us still remember with pleasure the monthly dinners established by literary men from time to time in their dream of fellowship; but alas! they continued only a year or two, always ending in fatal neglect. There was no common bond to hold the members together. When they were together they had nothing important to say to one another.

This, we believe, is the most striking and the most inevitable characteristic of present thinking. There is no common aim, no accepted formula, no tradition in favor of which one might be disposed to give up a part of his personality. There are *coteries*, it is true; there are no longer any schools. Interests combine sometimes, ideas never. Our literature lived almost two centuries on

classical doctrines, which had abundant leisure to take form, to bloom, and to decay.

Romanticism, which came after, endured only fifty years. Then naturalism seemed for a moment to take possession of the heritage; but it hardly endured ten years, and these were for it only years of battle. At present we defy anybody to find a word that might sum up the tendencies of our writers and serve them as a banner to rally the weak and the hesitating.

The public applauds with equal heartiness the naturalists, the Parnassians,³ and the psychologists, without taking sides either with the one or the other. Behind these three phalanxes which fill up the foreground are moving a few vague "symbolists," subdivided into several groups of infinitesimally different shades, who anathematize one another with ferocity. It is no longer abstract terms, it is the titles of reviews or the names of men which serve to distinguish these different groups. We may fancy the chapter which will be devoted to our epoch in future manuals of literary history. It will be a catalogue of incongruous names, and philosophical minds will ask themselves in vain, "What caprice of history united in the same space of time beings who were separated by such irreconcilable differences?"

I do not claim that this trait is a drawback on our epoch; I only say it is one of the characteristics. It is all the more striking because it is in flagrant contradiction with other tendencies which are triumphing in other departments of public life. In fact, individualism is not in favor, although we may foresee that its cause is not lost forever.

At present the social theories which appear most in vogue are all connected more or less directly with collectivism. The reforms proposed by the physicians of the social body are alike in recognizing implicitly the necessity of sacrificing the individual to the whole. The only point of difference is as to the manner of the sacrifice. The state helps along the socialistic idea by maintaining the principle of military service obligatory for all. It has often been said that the national army is a school of equality; it is

still more a school of communism, since its discipline implies the complete abdication of the rights of the individual. The whole social movement, whether it be a progress or a decadence, in every case takes its bearings from this point. Literature alone moves in an opposite direction, in remaining obstinately individualistic.

I would praise it for this, as I am one of those who long for a return of individualism. But I see in it a grave inconvenience, namely, everything that happens emphasizes the divorce between the writer and the masses. Now I believe the "ivory tower" is the most deplorable abode a genius can take refuge in; he can do nothing there but dry up. The writer, in fact, does not live by his inner life alone, however indispensable this may be to him, nor by the disinterested observance of nature; he lives above all by the direct and constant intercourse of his soul with other souls. His real greatness is to be a voice to souls that are dumb, whose aspirations, sentiments, and eternal desires he expresses. So we cannot rejoice to see him isolate himself from the general movement.

Three years ago on the occasion of the new elections to the Chamber of Deputies, this question went the rounds of the press: "May literary men play a rôle in politics?" Being questioned, almost all pronounced in favor of the negative, some of them with horror or disgust. Of course, I admit that nothing could oblige them to cast themselves into the arena where the rabble of professional politicians would not fail to give them the obstructive reception that they gave M. de Vogüé.⁴ But I could wish that their retreat were not on account of aloofness or indifference, and that their minds might remain open to the problems whose human interest ranks above even that of rhetoric. Chateaubriand and Lamartine did not disdain these; and I cannot help recalling the well-merited sensation enjoyed by the recent articles of M. Brunetière, who, however, did not belong any more to what men of the profession call pure literature.

The writer of to-day addresses himself

then to the masses. But amid the abundance of books offered by publishers the masses are of themselves incapable of making a choice. In reality the masses do not judge; their judgment is guided by experts. Who are these judges, and what are they good for?

First, of course, they are the critics charged with instructing from day to day the readers of the dailies or monthlies concerning the new books. Their influence is less than one might think, being counterbalanced by that of advertising and of the reporters. The latter have developed greatly in these latter years; so that instead of judging a new book one asks the author himself what he thinks of it, or descriptions of his face, his house, and his furniture are given; for the great public takes more pleasure in these picturesque details than in an abstract discussion. Few indeed have been the writers who have escaped being thus turned inside out. Taine, it is true, obstinately closed his doors to the reporters; but he is perhaps the only one.

But the influence of criticism, though not powerful, must not be denied. It still exists, beyond all doubt; but there is need of distinctions. Literary criticism does not work in the same way as dramatic criticism. The former exists only in the reviews and in a small number of journals; besides this, the great abundance of new publications limits it greatly; it deigns to utter itself only on the important books and leaves the others to their fate. Dramatic criticism, on the contrary, is regular, organized, and powerful; it disdains no mediocre *vaudeville*,⁵ no vulgar drama; no printed work escapes from its jurisdiction. The fact is, dramatic criticism exercises over the theatrical world a sort of dictatorship.

Authors, directors, and actors know this very well. After every first performance the critic's article is awaited with great anxiety, especially if he is known to be capable of maliciousness. For his maliciousness, in most cases, is his chief strength. The people do not thank him for his kindness; they like better his insinuations. A few among the best, such as M. Jules Le-

maitre, by force of their talent escape from this necessity of being malicious. But when talent is lacking it is really necessary to make up for it with something else.

We know that in the eighteenth century literary reputations were made partly in the *cafés*. This was still the case during the romantic period. To-day the *café* is no longer anything but a simple business rendezvous. You go there for a moment, you shake hands with a few random acquaintances, and run through the evening paper; you never chat there any more in the amiable and witty sense of the word, which supposes a complete freedom of mind. Only a few clubs of very young men resort now to this way of meeting.

Another factor whose importance has decreased is the salons. They still exist, no doubt, but with few exceptions they have no intellectual quality. In a large number of houses receptions are not given any more without excessive ostentation, and the fine treat of easy chitchat is no longer offered. The guests are too numerous; they are packed together in the parlors, and for amusement they are invited to listen to actors, virtuosos, and singers whom they have the opportunity to applaud every evening, if they so desire, in the different theaters. The art of chatting—that art so thoroughly French and so elegantly pretty—is tending to disappear. A few bright women, however, are striving to keep it up, and carefully gather at their homes, in limited numbers, some distinguished men to whom this hospitality furnishes the rare opportunity for conversations that may become interesting. It must be said, also, that in proportion as the men read less the women read more, so that they contribute more and more to the success of writers. The latter lose nothing by this. “Do you want to learn exactly what is fitting?” said Goethe. “Ask it only of noble women.”

In different degrees the salons, the *cafés*, and the dram shops, from being centers where the same persons meet, are favorable to the formation of *coteries*. These are aggregations of a very peculiar character. Community or kinship of ideas is not the bond of their union, so that often writers very different from one another, who would seem destined rather to combat than to help one another, are found “in the same boat.” Chance has thrown them together thus, and they have adjusted themselves to it. They soften their individual angles the best they can. With more good will than conviction, they lend one another support. Their alliance is a material fact that their intelligence tolerates. They are soldiers of different nationalities who have enlisted under the same flag; they do not speak the same language, and race hatreds live in their hearts; yet they must march and fight together.

These *coteries* are one of the plagues of our time. They make loyal criticism of new works almost impossible; when they are strong enough to succeed in it they impose a sort of tyranny on the elements they govern; as soon as they are strong they abuse their strength. The only counterpoise to balance their threatening authority is the one they employ reciprocally against one another. Their existence does not at all contradict the theory of individualism that we have explained above. They are pieces made up of pieces, and the thread which sews them together too often is visible. Their power is sometimes very great. Five or six young men, resolved to put aside everything that really separates them, in order to proclaim their genius aloud to everybody and against everybody, soon succeed in impressing those about them. But their end once gained, disintegration begins. In the last fifteen years how many of these *coteries* we have seen blaze forth and vanish!

FLAVIA.

BY ANDRÉ THEURIET.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE FRENCH "REVUE DES DEUX MONDES."

IV.

VITALINA PERRIN was the daughter of a rich miller of Récourt, and the wedding was to take place at the mill, whose freestone walls and newly tiled roofs attracted the eye when you approached the village coming from Ériseul. The first thing which struck me when Brocard's family carriage stopped early in the morning before the terrace of Chèvre-Chêne was the splendid bouquet of white lilacs and roses that Flavia held in her hand.

"Isn't that fine?" said the young girl to me while I was seating myself by her side on the back seat. "How good it smells! It is my valentine who has sent it to me by the Sonilly mail, with a box containing a dozen pairs of assorted gloves."

"M. Paul Saint-Vanne has done the right thing!" Numa Brocard cried, turning around with a flattered air.

Placed upon the front seat with his coachman, he had drawn a blue blouse over his company coat and was driving his horse himself, a spirited animal of which he was very proud. He was accompanying his daughter alone, Madame Brocard, *née* Des Encherins, having declared that she detested country weddings and would stay at home.

I was looking at the bouquet of roses and lilacs with a touch of vexation. I was chagrined that another had shown this attention to Flavia. I knew very well that at weddings in our country custom required the "valentine" to send a present to his "valentina." But in my opinion the gloves were enough and the bouquet was too much. I immediately disliked that bumptious groomsman without knowing him.

"What is this M. Saint-Vanne?" I asked disdainfully.

"What! you don't know?" cried out

Numa Brocard. "He is the son of one of the bigwigs of Sonilly. Paul Saint-Vanne is a lawyer's clerk at Verdun. He will certainly have an office there. He will make his way in the world, that fellow!"

Flavia said nothing, satisfying herself with smelling her bouquet. I likewise maintained a gloomy silence, and in that condition we came in sight of the mill. They had scarcely got a glimpse of us when we were greeted with a fusillade which came near turning us over into the ditch, for Numa's mettlesome steed was frightened and reared in the shafts. Fortunately two farm-hands seized him by the bridle. He quieted down and we got out. Flavia immediately went to the room where the bride was dressing, and Numa Brocard, having taken off his blouse, pushed me into the room where the invited male guests were drinking hot sweetened wine until the time for them to go to the town hall.

I staid unknown and neglected among these countrymen in their Sunday clothes, who were drinking one another's health and making a great noise in their jollifications. All at once from the corner where I was so greatly bored I saw a blond young man, with curling mustache and beard, circling about the table, holding in his hand a plateful of blue and white favors which he was giving to those around him. These were the liveries with the bride's colors with which the wedding party were to adorn their button-holes. The blond young man with a white cravat had on a dress coat, with a vest cut heart-shaped in the latest fashion. He had a pink complexion, a nose rounded at the end, rather protruding gray eyes, and an air of being well satisfied with himself. While offering his favors he would joke, laughing dryly and disdainfully. His round was nearly finished when he spied me in my corner.

"Hello!" said he carelessly, "I was about to overlook that little man. Do you want the colors, my boy?"

I was so vexed at hearing myself called "little man" that indignation smothered my voice.

"James," cried Numa Brocard to me, rising with a glass in his hand, "answer M. Paul Saint-Vanne, please!" Then turning toward the blond young man he added, "Excuse him, M. Paul, he is a little out of his element. He is M. du Condray, the judge's son."

Learning that I belonged to the magistracy through my father the notary's clerk changed his tone. His impertinent conceit was transformed into an almost obsequious politeness.

"Ah!" he said, "I have the honor of a slight acquaintance with your father. How is he? Come, come, don't be afraid," he went on, fixing the colors in my buttonhole himself. "We are here to amuse ourselves. You are the youngest in the crowd and shall be the first to kiss the bride."

Thereupon he whirled about on his heels and left me much astonished. So this fellow, curled, dressed to kill, sugary as a cream chocolate, was M. Paul Saint-Vanne, Flavia's valentine. I had detested him even before seeing him. Now I detested him with all my heart.

While I was thus conjuring up the green devils there came a great stir at the door. The bride had just come down, a little brunette with coal-black eyes. In her silk and tulle garments she looked like a fly in a pan of milk. Behind her the bridesmaids were carrying the train of her dress and the bouquet of orange blossoms. Ladies in hats and peasant women in bonnets were pressing in among the men. People were kissing one another, congratulating one another, while the violinists in the yard were tuning their instruments.

Before the open door you could see Paul Saint-Vanne bustling about, list in hand. He had been assigned the duty of regulating the order of the procession and he was calling out the names of the guests who were to go first:

"M. Perrin with the bride! The groom with his mother! Madame Perrin with M. Numa Brocard! The bridesmaids with their valentines!"

His voice rang out ceremoniously, his gestures became dictatorial. He already seemed a notary exercising his functions.

When all was in order the violins played a kind of march and the procession moved solemnly down the street between two rows of lookers-on. I was at the end with the unimportant guests and I couldn't see Flavia, much to my wrath. I didn't see her until we reached the town hall, where she was leaning on M. Paul Saint-Vanne's arm. He was bending over her with a marked gallantry which quite unstrung me. But it was much worse at the church. They took up the collection together, and you ought to have seen the valentine's poses, his impertinent smiles, his sappy ways. He was carrying Flavia's bouquet, was pressing his valentina's hand to make her turn to the right or the left. When they came near me I found out that I had left my pocketbook at home. A blush of shame flushed my forehead, and the idea of seeming a miserly fellow in Flavia's eyes proved the last straw in changing that festival day into a day of vexation for me.

After mass we returned, headed by the musicians, to sit down in a vast granary of the mill, which had been turned into a banquet hall. White cloths, adorned with pine branches and tufts of honeysuckle, covered the walls. Long tables had been set, rounded out into horseshoe shape, with the bride and groom in the middle, opposite large table ornaments over which butterflies and cupids balanced themselves on brass wires.

Wedding breakfasts are always interminable, especially in the country. The guests had good appetites and did not deny themselves at all. I alone ate very little and wore a sorrowful countenance. I employed my leisure moments in watching Flavia and her valentine, seated not far from the bride and groom, and I became more and more morose in noticing the antics of that wretched groomsman around his valentina. Flavia

looked very pretty in her holiday clothes. Her dress revealed the outlines of her figure. She wore on her shoulders a white lace fichu with Marie Antoinette knots. Her heavy hair, plaited low on her forehead, set off well her blue eyes, her oval face, and the dimples in her cheeks. I ought to have rejoiced at my friend's beauty, but my admiration was spoiled by a dull anguish. I saw her so absorbed in the marked attentions of Paul Saint-Vanne! He was offering her the best bits, was holding up the folds of her dress so that she should not spot it, was playing with the flowers of her bouquet, and at times he would murmur some insipid thing or other in her ear, at which Flavia was kind enough to smile. Only once in a great while did her glance seek me out at the end of the long table, and give me a slight token of sympathy.

I cursed Vitalina Perrin's wedding, and I hated that lawyer's clerk who was cheating me out of Flavia's good graces. I didn't wrong my friend so far as to be jealous. It didn't enter my head that she could be taken with the presumptuous airs of that fellow, who was dressed like a fashion plate, and whose honeyed lips and sly, cold glances made me distrust him. But I felt myself isolated, neglected, forgotten in the midst of that festival. I was prey to an inexpressible uneasiness, and I could have almost cried.

After the breakfast we went down with a great noise into a hall on the ground floor which had been fixed up for the dance. There my sorrows were further increased by the sight of the liberties which that fop of a Saint-Vanne took with his valentina. At country weddings the youths think they are authorized to be free with the girls in a way that would not be tolerated in a city. For instance, when the dancers would come to sit down against the whitewashed walls after each dance it sometimes happened that there wasn't room enough. Then the young men would unceremoniously place the girls on their knees, and the latter would take to the idea in the most natural way in the world. Besides this the violin players at the end of quadrilles would set

their bows against the treble string and draw from their instruments a sharp and buzzing tone which sounded like a kiss. This was a signal which all were bound to obey, and for a good long minute each dancer kissed his partner. Judge of my amazement, of my suppressed rage, when I perceived Flavia sitting on Saint-Vanne's knees, and when I came upon her a little later allowing herself to be kissed on the cheeks by her groomsman, while the grating notes of the violin seemed to rail at my grief.

As there were many men I was hardly noticed, and besides I didn't know how to dance. I wandered about like a tormented spirit, run down by the couples that were waltzing, pressed against the wall by the more general quadrilles, but not losing sight of Flavia, and bitterly observing that Saint-Vanne danced with her very often. He was a good waltzer and Flavia seemed to like to turn round and round encircled by his arm. Seizing her with a firm grasp he would throw himself into the giddy whirl, head high, with haughty look, and a white narcissus stuck in his buttonhole. Flavia, her head bent over her partner's shoulder, her eyes modestly veiled by her brown lashes, half leaned with smiling lips against his supporting arm. In the rapid and rhythmic movement of the waltz her skirt would at times show her feet in their little black slippers gliding in cadence over the floor.

Now and then after a dance, all out of breath but with brilliant eyes, she would approach me, give me a light tap on the cheek, and ask, "Are you happy, James?" then would go off again on the arm of a new dancer, while I remained with my mouth open and a heavy heart.

About nine o'clock my torture ended. As Flavia was to pass the next day with the bride, in her capacity as maid of honor, the Brocards' domestic took me back in the carriage and I returned to Chèvre-Chêne sorrowful and sad.

Thursday was a lamentably long day for me. A cruel feeling of loneliness weighed upon my breast, while I wandered idly and languidly through the woods which overlooked the Récourt road. It seemed to me

as though my delight in life had wholly gone. With tears in my eyes I would look at the dusty road which wound toward the village where Flavia had staid, and I thought, "At this very hour she is out walking, leaning on Saint-Vanne's arm, while I am longing for her here alone. She won't come back before night and next Saturday is the time we must return to Villotte. I have only two holidays left, and out of these two days that wretched wedding is stealing a whole one from me!" The wind blew up on the road white spirals of dust and carried them along toward Récourt. In my boyish sorrow I envied the lot of those dusty whirlwinds which were going away toward Vitalina Perrin's mill. I was tempted to follow them and stop with them before the door where the wedding party was no doubt dancing. But I was restrained by a sense of shame and also by the remembrance of my disappointments of the previous evening. Why renew these by taking up again over there the contemplative rôle I had played on Wednesday? It was better to gnaw at my bit with resignation, and wait for Flavia's return.

Friday at nine o'clock I was already at the factory, knocking at my friend's door. I found her somewhat tired still with her two days of merrymaking, but smiling, her eyes brilliant. She was crocheting near the window.

"Here you are at last!" I cried, seizing her hands and embracing her. "I have found you again, Flavia!"

"Come! what a fuss!" she cried, laughing. "One would think that it had been a year since you saw me."

"Indeed yesterday did seem a year to me, Flavia. How lonesome I was! How time dragged! You did not notice it, you bad girl!"

"Indeed I didn't. The day after the wedding was even jollier than the first day. We went on a walk to Benoite-Vaux. We had a lunch in the woods, then played games. M. Saint-Vanne can't be beaten as a merry-maker. He sings very well. If you only knew, James, what a memory he has, and how wittily he answered when we

all questioned him! He is a charming escort."

"I detest him!" I exclaimed vehemently.

"Why? I beg of you! You are decidedly in the wrong to do so, for he praised you to me. He finds you a nice little fellow. He questioned me a great deal about our acquaintance with your father, and he was sorry he didn't have the time to get acquainted with you."

"He doesn't please me, and I don't want to know him."

While I was thus expressing myself with angry energy I had mechanically taken Flavia's prayer-book from the table and was turning over its pages with nervous fingers. A dried flower fell out of it to the floor.

"Awkward boy!" said the girl quickly, "you will spoil my narcissus!"

I had already picked the flower up, and was looking at it. It was a white narcissus. The pressure of the book had flattened it, but had not yet dried it. It appeared to have been in the prayer-book but a short time, and I remembered suddenly that on the evening of the dance Paul Saint-Vanne wore a narcissus in his buttonhole. This thought stung me to the quick. I grew pale and muttered between my teeth, "It's your valentine who gave it to you?"

"Yes," she answered impatiently. "Come, give it back to me right away."

Instead of heeding that request I crushed the flower in my fingers and tore it to pieces.

"My poor narcissus!" groaned Flavia, amazed.

"Here! here's your poor narcissus!" I cried out angrily, throwing the remains of the flower on her worktable. "A pretty place a prayer-book is to put your lover's presents! Aren't you ashamed?"

At the same time, sadness succeeding anger, I began to sob aloud.

Frightened, moved to pity also by that unexpected outburst of tears, Flavia bent toward me and took my hands in hers.

"What's the matter with you, my little fellow?" she asked with tender inflection. "Why do you cry?"

"Ah!" I sighed, "Flavia, you don't

love me any more! You don't love me any more!"

Was she moved by maternal compassion, or herself over-excited, enervated by those two days of dissipation? Did she feel the need of pouring out on some one the confused tenderness which was welling up in her heart? Suddenly she took my head in her hands and mingling kisses with my tears she said, caressing me:

"Yes I do, dearie, I love you very much. Don't cry any more. Kiss me!"

I sprang up and threw my arms about her neck. Without being conscious of what I was really doing I covered her chin and her cheeks with kisses. She was astonished and disturbed by this violent manifestation of affection, and remained for a moment as though stunned. Then evidently seeing the ill effects which would result from that involuntary attitude and those kisses laden with tears, she quickly unclasped my hands. Pushing me away as she herself stepped backward she stammered, blushing blood-red: "What's the matter with you? Come, calm yourself!"

She had gone to her bureau and was brushing back her hair.

"Are you crazy?" she added in severe tones.

I looked at her as she stood there, remaining some distance from her, all breathless still with my outbreak of the moment before.

"Flavia," I began with supplicating voice, "promise me that you will never love anybody but me."

"What an odd boy you are!" she answered evasively. "I will always be your best friend. There, are you satisfied? Now leave me for a while. To-night you will come and take dinner here with your father and to-morrow morning I will go to Chèvre-Chêne and say good-by to you before you start."

This was as much as I could ask, and so I left her, half happy, half anxious. An emotion I had never before experienced was oppressing me. The kisses I had taken from Flavia and those that she gave me were burning me. I saw her again that

evening at her parents' table, but we were not alone for an instant. The next day she kept her promise. At the moment when Coco's carryall had drawn up before our door she came to bid me farewell and bring me a basketful of Easter eggs.

"Good-by," she said, "until the next vacation!"

I tore myself away and got into the carriage between my father and Scolastique. Coco whistled to his beast, which started on a trot, and I turned around to send one more kiss to Flavia. But the road must have made a sharp turn at that place, for I could no longer see my friend through the clouds of dust which were raised by the horses' hoofs.

V.

THE three months which passed between the first Sunday after Easter and the approach of the long vacation seemed to me unutterably long. Each evening, with that disdain for the value of time which is one of the characteristics of youth, I would cross out with my red pencil on my school-boy's almanac the day that was drawing to a close. I fancied that I was hastening thus the flight of hours, as you think you can shorten your journey by counting the milestones on the road. But this deceptive method only succeeded in proving to me more clearly how many long days were still separating me from vacation time.

I would hardly play at all. The noisy sports of my comrades seemed now to me but wretched pleasures compared with the leisure hours I enjoyed in Flavia's company. Summer evenings, after school was over, and Sundays I would prefer to loiter alone in our garden in Clouères Street, meditating on my memories of Easter. The blue-bottles which bloomed in the flower beds recalled my dear one's eyes to me, and in listening to the sounds of the Sunday bells, or of the angelus tinkling out into the twilight, I would say to myself: "What is she doing at this moment? Is she coming back from the vesper service, prayer-book in hand, or is she walking in the foot-path to Benoite-Vaux? Is she still

thinking of that fop of a Saint-Vanne? Has she gone to another wedding and danced with him again?" When bad weather would make my lounging in the garden impossible I would stay shut up in my room on the top floor, and leaning out of the window I would listen with a vague melancholy to the dripping of the water from the eaves, and look at the flying clouds which a westerly wind was pushing along toward Verdun; and then the words of an old country ditty which the Ériseul girls sang would come to my lips:

"I will send you letters
By the fleecy clouds
Running over the fields."

I too would admonish the clouds to talk to Flavia, but that poetic mode of correspondence was not satisfying to my heart.

We heard from Ériseul only through our farm-hand, Coco. But as Coco didn't know how to write he dictated his letters to his daughter and these laconic epistles were about as explicit as the missives carried by the fleecy clouds. Once, however, after some details about the hay crop, Coco ended his letter in this way:

"Nothing more to tell you except that Numa Brocard's family send you many good wishes. Lately Mlle. Flavia was sought for in marriage, but we must suppose that the gentleman did not suit her, for she stoutly refused him."

These last words at first struck into my heart. Then, after a moment of distress I experienced a joyful feeling of relief in thinking that if she had refused to get married it was indeed because she kept her word to me and had made up her mind to wait for me. But Coco didn't tell the name of the rejected suitor and that worried me. Sometimes in my extreme conceit I fancied that M. Saint-Vanne was the man, and I rejoiced at the thought that she had sacrificed him to me. And then I would take it into my head that it was perhaps another lover, since nothing could prove to me that she was not thinking of her valentine of the Récourt wedding. This doubt made me nervous, and all the more eager to reach the time when I could see Flavia again.

At last the long-desired hour of the long vacation arrived. After the awards of prizes, in which I got some laurel wreaths, we packed up our traps and my father gave the signal for our departure.

Here we were again in Vautrin's mail-coach. We were once more trotting over the Sonilly road, through the fields ready for the harvest, and the villages where flights of pigeons were whirling above the roofs. I was wild with delight. My hurry to get to my journey's end made me twitch all over and every instant I was giving some kick or other against Scolastique's somnolent knees. "Keep still, can't you?" my father would say, his teeth on edge. "You're wriggling all the time." Useless torture! Every moment I would lean out of the window to see whereabouts on the road we were. At the forking of the Heippes road Coco in my opinion would never get through transferring the baggage to his wagon. My uneasiness stopped only when I got sight of the Ériseul belfry and the chimney of the factory.

Scarcely had I got out at Chèvre-Chêne when I left my father and Scolastique to fight it out with the baggage and dashed away toward the younger Brocard's house. I ran up the steps, four at a time. From the threshold of the kitchen I could hear laughter, the jingling of glasses in the dining room close at hand, and my nostrils sniffed a savory odor of cake. I turned the door knob. O unexpected sight! O bitter disappointment!

Seated between Madame Lucia and Numa Brocard, smiling with contentment, spruce in his suit of coarse blue cloth, beaming of face and flowery of button-hole, Paul Saint-Vanne was holding out his glass to Flavia, who was pouring into it some old wine grown in the region, rosy and sparkling like champagne. On the table in a large iron dish a Lorraine pancake, browned, fluffy, hot from the oven, was giving out an appetizing odor. Their faces were rippling with satisfaction. A ray of sunshine passing through the nasturtiums in the window was lighting up the brimming glasses and the glistening eyes of

the banqueters. Flavia herself had paid much attention to her toilet. Her cambric dress with pink stripes was cut somewhat low in the neck. Her hair was crowning her forehead with delicate curls which told of preparation and care. Her blue eyes had something more tender than usual in them while she was filling Paul Saint-Vanne's glass. All at once she caught sight of me, bewildered in the frame of the half-opened door, and she gave a movement of surprise, revealed by a slight trembling of the hand, which spilled the wine from the glass and wet the tablecloth.

"Bravo!" cried Numa Brocard. "You have a good scent, James, and you got wind of the cake. Take a chair and sit down! When there's enough for four, there's enough for five. Flavia, give him a plate and a glass."

Flavia obeyed and offered me a chair, with a friendly tap on the shoulder. I was so dumbfounded and overcome that I didn't even remember to kiss her. And yet how many times on the road I had turned warm and cold at the thought of touching my lips to her cheek! But could I foresee what was awaiting me at the factory? Could I suppose that the joys of our first interview would be spoiled by the presence of that odious notary's clerk?

"I will remind you, James," Madame Lucia Brocard said to me in her dulcet tones, "that you have not even greeted us. The sight of the pancake must have distracted your attention. Can it be that you don't know M. Paul Saint-Vanne?"

"Indeed we do know each other," answered the lawyer's clerk with his sugary smile. "We have met before at the Perrin wedding. And this very morning I read M. du Condray's name in the *Meuse Journal* among the scholars who were crowned at the award of prizes. My best compliments, my little friend!"

"Come, James, I will drink to your success!" replied Numa Brocard, knocking his glass against mine. "And now you will sample the pancake!"

Red, disconcerted, dumb, I nevertheless tried to smile in order not to let them sus-

pect how distressed I was. I had very little heart to join in a merrymaking. These people were too festive for me, and in spite of my weakness for the pancake I rolled the bits of it around in my mouth, having hard work to swallow them. Besides, after their first moment of surprise was over no one of the feasters paid any further attention to my acts and movements. The conversation, interrupted by my arrival, had unceremoniously started up again and M. Saint-Vanne, with a broad smile which showed his white teeth, went on to finish his account of an evening party given by the sub-prefect of Verdun in honor of the 15th of August, Napoleon's birthday. He described the dress of the dancers like a journal of fashions, itemized the bill of fare at supper, and related the success he had in leading the german.

"The drawing-rooms there," he continued, "are wonderfully well adapted to receptions, and the general effect is charming. You must see that next winter, ladies."

"Ho! ho!" answered Numa Brocard, "we live too far off, and the sub-prefect could scarcely think of inviting such country people as we are!"

"Why not, indeed!" cried Madame Lucia, much piqued by his words. "It seems to me that my daughter would not be out of place anywhere."

"By no means," M. Saint-Vanne gallantly answered. "It would be a rare stroke of luck for the sub-prefect's lady to have in her parlors many dancers as charming as Mlle. Flavia. I will speak to the secretary at the sub-prefecture, who is a friend of mine, and I will have an invitation sent you for the next ball."

Although Numa Brocard assumed an indifferent air, the idea of being invited to the sub-prefect's residence tickled his vanity and made him even better disposed than ever toward that lawyer's clerk who was living on a plane of equality with the administrative authorities. He smiled on him in an almost paternal fashion, and never let his glass stay empty. Madame Lucia Brocard went even further than her husband. Saint-Vanne's stories of the fashionable

world evidently stirred in her veins the blue blood of the Des Encherins. She saw herself already in a party dress walking through the sub-prefect's parlors, and she fairly lavished her affected graces on the smart leader of Germans. He got all the care and attention. Paul Saint-Vanne, laughing with a conceited little air, received it all as his due. He would caress his shining round nose with his white hand, the nails of which were very long and cut almond-shaped, or lifting the lapel of his coat he would complacently breathe in the odor of the rose that was blooming in his buttonhole, and would send a conquering look in Flavia's direction.

She also underwent the charm exercised by that interloper. She drank in the least of his words as though they were honey. Though she modestly lowered her eyes whenever he cast impertinent glances at her, yet she appeared to be by no means offended at them. On the contrary, through the fringe of her brown lashes you could divine a beam of pleasure. Her cheeks would grow pink, and this sudden flush would denote more contentment than confusion.

As for me I was shocked by what was going on. If I had heeded my indignation only I would have left the table and fled from that house where I was treated as a negligible quantity. But my exasperated feeling of love made me a coward. I preferred to drain that bitter cup rather than condemn myself to seeing Flavia no more. Fancy to yourself that for three months I had thought of nothing but the joys of that meeting, that each evening I had delighted myself in advance with the prospect of living for six weeks the life of Mlle. Brocard, and then you can judge whether I had the strength to deprive myself of her presence. Like all true lovers I threw my dignity aside and much preferred to suffer in seeing Flavia than to languish away from her. Besides, I would tell myself that my over-excited imagination and my wounded self-esteem were perhaps carrying things too far. M. Saint-Vanne's visit might be the result of chance. The Brocards liked to entertain, the lawyer's clerk had been Flavia's

valentine, and as such it was not possible for them to receive him otherwise than they did, by drinking to his health, without failing to observe the hospitable customs of the country. Finally I hoped that this visit would not run too far into the evening, and I had firmly made up my mind not to leave before Saint-Vanne did.

In fact when the sun began to go down the lawyer's clerk, having drunk a last toast with his hosts, declared that to his great regret he was obliged to take his leave. He had come on foot from Sonilly, and didn't wish to return too late to his parents' house, since they were expecting him to supper.

All rose then and shook hands, and Saint-Vanne after many expressions of thanks asked permission to kiss his valentina. This seemed to me the height of boldness, and I thought he would surely meet with a polite refusal. Not at all. The permission was granted, and the worst of it was that Flavia took it with very good grace. They went with their visitor as far as the steps, where Madame Lucia said to him in her most insinuating tone: "We shall see you again soon, M. Saint-Vanne? Since you are staying some time at Sonilly I hope we shall have that pleasure."

As for Numa Brocard, having put on his straw hat he declared he would go a piece with their guest.

They went off together, gay as chaffinches, while Flavia, leaning on the iron balustrade, followed them with her eyes as far as the turn of the road. Madame Lucia had gone back to the dining room. We two remained on the steps, Flavia with her eyes lost in the dreamy distance, I wounded and raging.

"How good it seems out of doors!" murmured Flavia, raising her head. "What a fine evening!"

Toward the west the sky was spotted with light salmon-colored clouds, on which the last rays of the sun were still playing, while the crescent of the moon was visible above the tree tops. An odor of clematis filled the air and the ripplings of the stream sounded like the amorous tones of a flute. But all that witchery of an August evening made no impression on me. It aggravated my

grief rather by the contrast which that country loneliness showed with the mourning I was wearing in my heart.

"Will you walk in the garden with me?" asked Flavia.

I quickly nodded my head as a sign of consent. I was irritated with her, but I didn't have the courage to show her I was, and leave her in that way. I felt the need of breathing the same air with her, of hearing her voice even though I should suffer all the more. I held on obstinately to that occasion for prolonging our conversation alone. I hoped that she would explain to me, in the solitude of the shadowy garden, Paul Saint-Vanne's visit, and with one word would set at rest my sorrowful apprehensions. I was mistaken. She avoided all allusion to the notary's clerk. Light, quick, moving along the walks with her airy, bird-like step, she would hum a bit of a song, would breathe in the perfume of a rose as she passed, would gayly question me concerning my father's health, and seemed to think no more about Paul Saint-Vanne than she did of the snow of last year.

I was simple, without experience. I took that frolicsome gayety as a sign of indifference, and began to think I had been alarmed too soon. Rarely had I found Flavia so exultant, so flighty. She, so calm and reserved ordinarily, chattered with a nervous haste that evening. The shadows of night were stealing little by little over the garden. The moon's crescent was sending furtive bluish rays between the branches of the fruit trees, and giving fantastic forms to the flowers. Now and then an overripe plum would drop on the sand with a dull thud. Here and there a glowworm would stir in the grass. Its little greenish lamp would shine for a second, then would disappear, as if the insect had been charged with some mysterious quest.

"Flavia," I asked with an affected carelessness, "does M. Saint-Vanne come to your house often?"

"No," she answered. "It is his first visit."

"Had your father known him before?"

"Certainly, he had seen him at Vitalina's wedding. Besides they met on a fishing party and papa invited him to the house."

"You received him so well," I added bitterly, "that he will probably come again very soon. Don't you think so?"

"You are too inquisitive!" she answered laughing.

She had stopped before a tea-rose bush whose full pale flowers were flooded by a ray of moonlight.

"See," she said, "don't you think this rose is exactly like the one M. Paul had in his buttonhole?"

At the same time picking the rose she smelled it languishingly and put it in her bosom.

I was mistaken. She was still thinking about the lawyer's clerk, only she concealed her thoughts, probably in order to throw me off my guard. It was more than I could stand, and fearing that I should not be able to restrain my grief I determined to leave her.

"Good night!" I murmured.

"Good night!" she gayly answered. "Shall we see you to-morrow?"

My wounded dignity counseled me to cry out to her, "No!" and run away, but once again I was cowardly and I stammered: "Yes, to-morrow in the forenoon."

As soon as I left the factory I began to run like mad. The running, I thought, would shake off my sorrow and keep me from thinking. I reached Chèvre-Chêne out of breath, and received a scolding from Scolastique to begin with. They hadn't known where I had gone, and the supper was cold. Alas! I cared neither for the rebuke nor the supper. What I had just seen and heard had taken from me all desire for eating. The bites would not go down. To excuse my lack of appetite I told my father I had lunched at the Brocards with M. Saint-Vanne and the fried pancake had not digested well.

"Ah, M. Saint-Vanne!" said my father. "Isn't he the son of the old real estate dealer of Sonilly? And the Brocards had him at lunch? Well, well, he might turn out to be a husband for Flavia."

Suddenly he noticed that I had become very pale.

"What's the matter with you that you look so down in the mouth?" he went on jokingly. "Ha! ha! you are afraid the notary's clerk will cut the ground from under you and bear away your *Dulcinea*! Did you ever see anything like it? An urchin who doesn't know his Greek roots, and yet pretends to play the bashful lover! Go to bed, you chicken, and try to sleep. Sleep will help you digest your pancake and your jealousy!"

I obeyed in a hurry and went up to my room, but I didn't sleep. Once in bed I buried my head in my pillow and began to sob violently. That old Saint-Vanne wished

to marry Flavia; this was clear, and my faithless sweetheart was mocking me! My dreams of love had fallen to the earth, shattered. My life seemed to me to no longer have an object, and I wept out all the tears in my body.

Ah, those tears of early youth, with what abundant impetuosity they flow! You think they will never dry. They are like those tropical rains which fall with such torrent-like violence that you think they will flood everything. Then night comes, the torrent grows quiet, and in the morning the sun shines again. When I had cried myself out, sleep gradually closed my moistened eyes, and I fell into a deep slumber.

(*To be continued.*)

ON CONVERSATION.

BY J. P. MAHAFFY, D.D., D.C.L., OXON.

PROFESSOR OF ANCIENT HISTORY, UNIVERSITY OF DUBLIN.

III.

PERHAPS my theory of conversation would have more easily found entrance into skeptical minds if I had illustrated the whole matter from the only form of conversation which can possibly be made permanent—I mean from good specimens of familiar epistolary correspondence. Letter-writing as such—I do not speak of official documents in that form—is the free and easy talk of two friends, in which questions and answers are indeed separated by considerable intervals, but when that interval is obliterated we have simply a written-down talk, with all the variety of subjects, of interests, of style, of method, which have been specified in my book. There is perhaps not a single point mentioned in my analysis which does not apply to letter-writing, except the question of sweetness of voice and grace of manner, which belongs only to a *vivâ-voce* discourse. Perhaps a good hand and clear writing may occupy the place of a sweet voice in letter-writing. Otherwise correspondence is as

various and universal as talking, though we necessarily embrace fewer people in the company, and though there may be many of the lower classes in the world who are unable to write, and yet talk pleasantly enough.

For through the letters preserved and printed long after the writers have passed away we can attain to the merits and the style of conversation in ages and societies different from our own, and it is remarkable how the style of social intercourse does vary, though the national habits may be the same. The conversations put by Sir Walter Scott into the mouths of his heroes and heroines seem to us utterly unnatural; they will seem less so if we compare them with the letters of our grandfathers and grandmothers, whose style is now as faded as the ink with which they wrote.

The reasons are obvious. It cost ten pence to send an ordinary letter across England before the days of Sir Roland Hill and the penny post; moreover newspapers were scarce, and the duty of sending news

by letter was then far more pressing. So also was the duty of actually conversing with friends then separated by a long journey, whereas nowadays we can reserve ourselves for a flying visit paid by rail from Saturday to Monday. Friends can now see one another so much more easily that the old letters of intimacy are comparatively rare. Need I add that the curt and rude language of the telegram has accustomed us all to missives which would not have been tolerated in a more ceremonious age; and so any pomp or circumstance in style is only permitted in those formal addresses of congratulation intended for publication, or accompanied with a silver tea-pot or the like to give them reality. These documents, even when they keep clear of bombast and solecism, are specimens of an antiquated style, and represent not unfairly the pompous letters which were thought elegant by the school of Lord Chesterfield. Such too appears to have been their social talk. The extreme of artificiality was attained by the euphuists, of whom Scott has given an amusing parody in his "Monastery"; but even in Shakespeare we may see how overpowering was the tact for artificial conceits in what was deemed polite conversation.

The change of tact in letter-writing follows closely, or accompanies, the change in the character of our conversation. What we now want is to have as much packed into a small compass as possible. That was the secret of Carlyle's success as a letter-writer. He was an extraordinary master of epithets, most of them abusive, and could sketch a man or a woman most picturesquely, as well as completely, in three or four words. But as the modern impressionist portrait painters tell you that it does not much signify whether their portraits are like the originals provided they produce a striking impress of the artist's mind, so Carlyle's most striking and humorous sketches of the men he met are often untrue to nature, though very consistent and artistic in themselves. This power of dashing off things made him an excellent letter-writer, and I have said somewhere in

my book the corresponding thing about talkers. The instant we have conveyed our idea in conversation, we should pass on to something fresh, without even waiting to round off our periods. The style of Gibbon would be intolerable in modern society. Carlyle's letters were moreover exact reproductions of his style in talking. He was not a man for conversation. When you went to see him he talked and you listened, and more than once have I heard him pour out his picturesque epithets, and amid a good deal of nonsense emit diamond flashes of excellent good sense. But whether he talked sense or nonsense, no one could deny that he was most agreeable.

Mr. Gladstone, who had the same habit of monopolizing attention by pouring out the rich stores of his mind, used to talk in a very different way, and had he not been so great he would have been tedious. For he rolled out his argument in long periods, perfectly fit for a public speech. The fiery eye and melodious voice of the old man, as well as the extraordinary variety of his knowledge and versatility of his mind, made this display of eloquence in private life exceedingly interesting, though of course it was not conversation.

There was a curious contrast between the two in another respect. The main charm in Carlyle's exceedingly faulty style was that he wrote exactly as he talked. Mr. Gladstone (I speak of him ten years ago) talked as he spoke on the platform. The readers will do well to ponder over the distinction. The one made his nature art, the other his art nature. But in both cases those who met them in society had the very great privilege of hearing a master mind exercising itself for the benefit of casual company. For both loved this exercise, and entered upon it on every opportunity, with little appearance of reserve. And reserve, if apparent, is the real kill-joy of conversation. There are of course many *tacenda* in the mind of every civilized man; no one is expected to unveil his life to public gaze, and if he did so would probably produce silence rather than conversation. But reserve in smaller matters,

the appearance of keeping back your kindness or your sympathy, is fatal to social enjoyment.

At the risk of degenerating into gossip I will make a reflection upon a first-rate talker of the very opposite type from the two great men just mentioned, and I have spoken of one of them, who is yet alive, because he will never again go abroad into general society, though he still pursues a life of piety and learning in that retirement which many of us think the most honorable period of his life. When I come to speak of a talker who gives in order that he may receive, who makes you talk to him when you had hoped he would talk to you, and who uses his vast and curious experience only for the purpose of stimulating all those around him, I am obliged, among public and well-known men, to mention one who is still a capital figure in the world—Lord Wolseley. But the danger of giving examples is that the writer may have failed to meet many who well deserve to be quoted. Thus it is manifest enough to any one who travels in America that the conversational powers of our cousins are very great, and polished by constant exercise. Yet how few Englishmen have had the privilege of meeting their best talkers!

James Russell Lowell was the most famous American known to me, but he was not, in my opinion, in the first rank as a talker. He was extraordinarily well educated, and had his knowledge well in hand, but he appeared to be conscious of it all the time, and so lacked that spontaneity which the French know as *abandon*. Hence he was far more brilliant as an after-dinner speaker, for there reflection and preparation are better than any mere spontaneity, which by itself is the cause of almost all the fluent bad speeches we hear.

But I have nothing to say of *speaking* in this paper, and therefore apologize for even this slight digression, which suggests to us, however, the topic regarding which my book excited much criticism, and upon which I desire to reiterate and enforce my views.

There is a very strong and general belief

that in an occupation so various, so light, so specific as social intercourse nothing but nature's guidance is to be sought; that anything like formality in method is to be avoided; and that consequently preparation for such a thing is both undesirable and indeed impossible. How can we tell, in most cases, what the current of the conversation will be? And whatever it is, we should drift with it, and never seek to curb or direct its course. Any attempt at regulating it, any effort to bring it into a course for which we have gathered materials, is regarded as pedantic or officious, and an undue attempt to interfere with the natural and spontaneous flow of mother art.

This is the feeling, perhaps hardly amounting to a conviction, with which most people in Ireland receive any proposal to analyze and reduce to method their conversation. They will not even admit that it is an art, but merely the natural manifestation of character in society, of which the great object is to be perfectly untrammelled. It seems to me that even if we admit every word of this objection there is nevertheless room for an art of conversation, and a possibility of making progress in it by careful reflection upon its principles. Both in public speaking and in acting upon the stage no perfection can be attained unless the orator or actor is perfectly natural. In how many cases is this perfection a gift of nature, and not the result of long and arduous training? Natural gifts are in each case indispensable, but these natural gifts will not have their effect, or show their excellence, if they are not aided and directed by art. So it is with conversation.

Preparation, therefore, being almost invariably required, it remains for us to ascertain what the nature and amount of that preparation should be, which may not weaken or spoil our natural gifts, but give them greater scope and greater freedom. Of course that preparation may be general or special, and on the details of this matter I need hardly do more than refer to what I have said long ago. General preparation includes all kinds of knowledge and experience. The more a man knows the

more likely he is to be agreeable, though there may be men who spoil their conversation by a display of learning. Yet even they are often astonishing, and so far interesting to their hearers. Experience of life is of course more valuable for this purpose than knowledge of books, and hence lawyers, doctors, soldiers, who have seen into the secrets of many households, and encountered all manner of men, are likely to be more agreeable in conversation than the mere professor of a great subject, such as mathematics or philosophy. Yet all and every kind of knowledge is valuable, not only in giving a man material for his talk, but sympathy for the talk of many diverse people, and above all the power of putting to them such good questions as will draw out what they have to say. There is no higher or more adequate test of a good conversational power than to be thrown suddenly into the company of a sulky, ignorant, narrow person, and so to handle him that he not only thaws, but imparts what knowledge he happens to possess. We may add that there is hardly an ignorant person who does not know something of interest or value to a man of the highest education.

I may be told that this is not conversation as I have defined it—that this is seeking improvement by instruction. Of course it is, and so far it is not that mere elegant recreation which cultivated minds love to practice in their leisure moments; but still it is conversation, in all cases better than gloomy silence, and it may even rise to a very high point of interest. These considerations also show that we cannot treat of the intellectual qualification of mere knowledge without including and presupposing certain moral qualifications — sympathy, kindness, a certain vivacity of temper which give freshness and keenness to the conversation even of very old people.

The question of special preparation is a very controverted one, owing to the belief already mentioned that any such preparation spoils the spontaneity of talk, and that if you perceive that a man has prepared his conversation, or wishes to lead you from

the topic in hand to something else, you resent it and look upon him as an impostor or a bore. But that only means that he does not know how to make his preparation, or else that there is something interesting already under discussion, in which case we resent "the drawing of a red herring across the trail."

But let us suppose that there is no subject before the company; let us suppose that a man comes in while people are waiting for the arrival of guests to complete a dinner party. It is the *mauvais quart d'heure* of the French. In such a moment any man who brings in a bit of strange news, who starts a paradox, who suggests any topic of interest, is a real benefactor to the host and hostess, and surely will receive no censure from any reasonable person. And will any one tell me that the man who thinks of this conjuncture beforehand will not acquit himself better than he that leaves the matter to mere chance, or rather to the better intelligence of some other guest?

In the case of special preparation there is one golden rule which will prevent any mistakes. Such preparation must only be intended to fill up an unpleasant gap, to help out the company when no agreeable topic has been proposed. If things are going well, it is the duty of the prepared man to cast his materials to the wind and fall in with the current of the evening. There are many men so vain and selfish that they will not make this sacrifice, and will obtrude their ideas where they are not wanted. But here the fault lies not in the preparation, but in the moral qualities of the man. He ought to be delighted that his aid is not required, he ought to know that what he has ready will serve at some future occasion; if he cannot rise to these considerations he is a vain and worthless person and is not fit to be taught this gentle and delicate art. But so far as I know, capable people do everything far better when they have thought over it, than by mere chance, or at random. This statement is so perfectly obvious that I feel I am beginning to talk twaddle, and therefore hasten to take leave of the reader.

AMERICA'S CONTRIBUTIONS TO CIVILIZATION.*

BY PRESIDENT CHARLES W. ELIOT.

OF HARVARD UNIVERSITY.

LOOKING back over forty centuries of history, we observe that many nations have made characteristic contributions to the progress of civilization, the beneficent effects of which have been permanent, although the races that made them may have lost their national form and organization, or their relative standing among the nations of the earth. I ask you to consider with me what characteristic contributions the American people have been making, during this time, to the progress of civilization.

The first and principal contribution to which I shall ask your attention is the advance made in the United States, not in theory only, but in practice, toward the abandonment of war as the means of settling disputes between nations, the substitution of discussion and arbitration, and the avoidance of armaments.

The beneficent effects of this American contribution to civilization are of two sorts: in the first place the direct evils of war and of preparation for war have been diminished; and secondly the influence of the war spirit on the perennial conflict between the rights of the single personal unit and the powers of the multitude that constitute organized society, or in other words between individual freedom and collective authority, has been reduced to lowest terms. At this moment every young man in continental Europe learns the lesson of absolute military obedience, and feels himself subject to this crushing power of militant society, against which no rights of the individual to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness avail anything. This pernicious influence, inherent in the social organization of all continental Europe during many centuries, the American people

have for generations escaped, and they show other nations how to escape it.

There has been a deal of fighting on the American continent during the past three centuries; but it has not been of the sort which most imperils liberty. In this series of fightings the main motives were self-defense, resistance to oppression, the enlargement of liberty, and the conservation of national acquisitions.

In the meantime, partly as the results of Indian fighting and the Mexican War, but chiefly through purchases and arbitrations, the American people had acquired a territory so extensive, so defended by oceans, gulfs, and great lakes, and so intersected by those great natural highways, navigable rivers, that it would obviously be impossible for any enemy to overrun or subdue it. No one of the common causes of war has been efficacious in America since the French were overcome in Canada by the English in 1759. Looking forward into the future, we find it impossible to imagine circumstances under which any of them can take effect on the North American continent. Therefore the ordinary motives for maintaining armaments in time of peace and concentrating the powers of government in such a way as to interfere with individual liberty have not been in play in the United States as among the nations of Europe, and are not likely to be.

There is no need of bringing on wars in order to breed heroes. Civilized life affords plenty of opportunities for heroes, and for a better kind than war or any other savagery has ever produced. Moreover none but lunatics would set a city on fire in order to give opportunities for heroism to firemen, or introduce the cholera or yellow fever to give physicians and nurses opportunity for practicing disinterested devotion, or condemn thousands of people to extreme

* A summary of the oration delivered before the C. L. S. C. Class of 1896 in the Amphitheater at Chautauqua, N. Y., on Recognition Day, August 19, 1896.

poverty in order that some well-to-do persons might practice a beautiful charity. It is equally crazy to advocate war on the ground that it is a school for heroes.

In view of the immense unutilized opportunities for the beneficent application of great public forces does it not seem monstrous that war should be advocated on the ground that it gives occasion for rallying and using the national energies?

The second eminent contribution which the United States have made to civilization is their thorough acceptance in theory and practice of the widest religious toleration. The founders of New England and New York were men who had imbibed the principles of resistance both to arbitrary civil power and to universal ecclesiastical authority. The constitutional prohibition of religious tests as qualifications for office gave the United States the leadership among the nations in dissociating theological opinions and political rights. In the United States the great principle of religious toleration is better understood and more firmly established than in any other nation of the earth. It is not only embodied in legislation, but also completely recognized in the habits and customs of good society.

The third characteristic contribution which the United States have made to civilization has been the safe development of a manhood suffrage nearly universal. Universal suffrage is not the first and only means of attaining democratic government; rather, it is the ultimate goal of successful democracy. It is like freedom of the will for the individual—the only atmosphere in which virtue can grow, but an atmosphere in which evils can also grow. Like freedom of the will, it needs to be limited and surrounded with checks and safeguards, particularly in the childhood of the nation; but, like freedom of the will, it is the supreme good, the goal of perfected democracy. Secondly, like freedom of the will, universal suffrage has an educational effect which has been insisted upon by many writers, but has never been exaggerated or even adequately described.

It is commonly said by the critics of a wide suffrage that the rule of the majority must be the rule of the most ignorant and incapable, the multitude being necessarily uninstructed as to taxation, public finance, and foreign relations, and untrained to accurate thought on such difficult subjects. Now universal suffrage is merely a convention as to where the last appeal shall lie for the decision of public questions; and it is the rule of the majority only in this sense. The educated classes are undoubtedly a minority; but it is not safe to assume that they monopolize the good sense of the community. On the contrary it is very clear that native good judgment and good feeling are not proportional to education; and that among a multitude of men who have had only an elementary education a large proportion will possess both good judgment and good feeling.

It is often assumed that the educated classes become impotent in a democracy, because the representatives of those classes are not exclusively chosen to public office. This argument is a very fallacious one. It assumes that the public offices are the places of greatest influence; whereas, in the United States at least, that is conspicuously not the case. In a democracy it is important to discriminate influence from authority. Rulers and magistrates may or may not be persons of influence, but many persons of influence never become rulers, magistrates, or representatives in parliaments or legislatures. While it is of the highest importance under any form of government that the public servants should be men of intelligence, education, and honor, it is no objection to any given form that under it large numbers of educated and honorable citizens have no connection with the public service.

Persons who object to manhood suffrage as the last resort for the settlement of public questions are bound to show where in all the world a juster or more practicable regulation or convention has been arrived at. The objectors ought at least to indicate where the ultimate decision should in their judgment rest—as, for example, with the landowners, or the property-holders, or the

graduates of secondary schools, or the professional classes. It would be a bold political philosopher who, in these days, should propose that the ultimate tribunal should be constituted in any of these ways.

The United States have made to civilization a fourth contribution of a very hopeful sort, to which public attention needs to be directed, lest temporary evils connected therewith should prevent the continuation of this beneficent action. The United States have furnished a demonstration that people belonging to a great variety of races or nations are, under favorable circumstances, fit for political freedom. In two respects the absorption of large numbers of immigrants from many nations into the American commonwealth has been of great service to mankind. In the first place it has demonstrated that people who at home have been subject to every sort of aristocratic or despotic oppression become within less than a generation serviceable citizens of a republic; and in the second place the United States have thus educated to freedom many millions of men.

Another great contribution to civilization

made by the United States is the diffusion of material well-being among the population. No country in the world approaches the United States in this respect. It is seen in that diffused elementary education which implants for life a habit of reading, and in the habitual optimism which characterizes the common people. It is seen in the housing of the people and of their domestic animals, in the comparative costliness of their food, clothing, and household furniture, in their implements, vehicles, and means of transportation, and in the substitution on a prodigious scale of the work of machinery for the work of men's hands.

These five contributions to civilization—peace-keeping, religious toleration, the development of manhood suffrage, the welcoming of newcomers, and the diffusion of well-being—I hold to have been eminently characteristic of our country, and so important that, in spite of the qualifications and deductions which every candid citizen would admit with regard to every one of them, they will be held in the grateful remembrance of mankind. They are reasonable grounds for a steady, glowing patriotism.

THE OPIUM TRAFFIC IN CALIFORNIA.

BY FREDERICK J. MASTERS.

WHO has not heard of darkest underground Chinatown; the rickety stairs and narrow passages, the Stygian darkness, the damp, murky basements unpenetrated by one ray of daylight, the sickening atmosphere heavy with opium fumes and foul gases, the squalid dens, sepulcher-like in their silence save for the sputtering of opium pipes or the heavy breathing of their sleeping victims? And who shall describe the half-clad, emaciated wretches hiding away from the daylight twenty and forty feet below the level of the sidewalk, inclined upon bunks around opium lamps, like Tennyson's lotus eaters,

"With half-shut eyes ever to seem
Falling asleep in a half dream."

It is a little over one hundred years since

the Chinese first acquired a taste for opium. No one really knows how the vice originated, for while opium eating has been practised from time immemorial the opium pipe is a comparatively modern invention. The Chinese believe that the East Indian traders who first brought the crude opium to Canton also taught them how to boil and prepare the smoking extract and showed them how to smoke it. There is little doubt, however, that the present device for smoking opium was an invention of the Chinese and that this use of the drug originated with them.

The vice has spread with such alarming rapidity during the last fifty years that in China it is estimated that one adult male in five is now addicted to its use. Among

the twenty thousand Chinese swarming in the six blocks of that portion of San Francisco called Chinatown the proportion is even higher. After twenty-two years spent among the Chinese in Kwangtung and the United States I estimate that there are in this country thirty per cent of frequent smokers and at least fifteen per cent of sots. A sot, or a man who has the craving (*yin*) is regarded by the Chinese as hopelessly lost.

One cannot walk a block in Chinatown without realizing what a powerful grip the drug has upon that community, and, as I shall presently show, upon the people of our own race. From basement and open doorway pours forth the sickening odor that testifies to its presence. Through the sidewalk gratings the yellow fumes ascend as through the clefts of Gehenna. John Chinaman curses the "devil's dirt," but he cannot break its insidious spell. He would rank high as a temperance man but for opium. As a rule he has no use for our whiskey and beer. His white neighbor may delight in the excitement of the saloon, and drink himself into a state of beastly intoxication, but John Chinaman finds no joy in it. He takes his pleasures sadly and silently. It is in the tomblike silence of the opium den that he seeks tranquillity. It is to the seductive narcotic that he turns to lull his pain and grief.

The opium used for smoking and specially manufactured for the purpose in China is of the same color and about the same consistence as molasses. It is retailed in little buffalo-horn boxes about the size of a pill box holding enough for a day's supply for an average smoker. In most of the dens are earthenware pots containing different grades of opium, which is sold and smoked in the same room. The purchaser is provided with pipe and lamp and a mat-covered bunk.

The pipe is a bamboo stem about two feet long and an inch and a half in diameter, with an earthenware knob attached. This knob is supposed to resemble a poppy head and contains a tiny hole in the center. The smoker takes the pipe, aptly called

yen tsiong (opium pistol), and lies down with his head resting upon a stone pillow. While tobacco can be smoked sitting or walking, opium can be smoked only in a recumbent position. At the smoker's side is a little tray holding a lamp of cut glass, narrow at the top, the rim of which must be on a level with the tip of the flame. After warming the knob so that the heated opium will not cool by contact with it, the smoker takes up a little wire poker and dips it into the little box of opium, taking out as much of the extract as adheres to the poker. He twirls the wire poker till the opium forms into a bolus the size of a bean at the end of the wire. This is held over the flame of the lamp till it swells, bubble-like, to twice its original size. It is then rolled on the flat surface of the knob or bowl for the purpose of releasing the steam in the opium.

Again and again the bolus is roasted and rolled, this tiresome operation continuing for a couple of minutes, by which time it is reduced to a soft solid consistence by the evaporation of the water contained in the opium extract. When the little bolus has been properly roasted it is worked into a conical-shaped ring around the wire poker. The point is then inserted in the tiny orifice of the knob and twirled round till the opium becomes detached from the wire and adheres to the pipe. The knob bearing the little pellet of opium is then held over the flame, taking care not to char it by too close contact.

The smoker now takes a long draw at the stem. There is a sputtering noise for about thirty seconds, but no smoke. The fumes are taken into the man's lungs, traveling over the respiratory mucous membrane where the alkaloids cannot fail to be absorbed into the man's blood. At last the pipe is empty, and as it drops from the hand the pent-up vapor breaks loose from nose, mouth, and ears in a dense volume of stupefying smoke. The pipe knob is sponged off, the smoker takes another dip into the opium pot, and the process is repeated till the opium is gone and the smoker drops off into those blissful dreams which are half the fascination of the opium divan.

The more inveterate smokers contrive to retain the smoke in the lungs till the essence of the extract becomes absorbed into the system, by which device a little opium will go a long way. A beginner is satisfied with one or two whiffs, which generally produce nausea and giddiness. Fifteen days' regular smoking is sufficient to fix the habit, and he becomes possessed of a craving which may bind him a slave to the drug as long as he lives. One poor fellow told the writer of the agony he endured when attempting to abstain, which he compared to a tiger's teeth and claws fastened upon his vitals. After the first few puffs he finds relief, and the internal gnawing gives place to delightful sensations, and he floats away into a state of revolting enjoyment.

The deadly effects of opium smoking are not so apparent in California as in China. Here the Chinese can afford to smoke the best opium, or that which contains the smallest proportion of morphia. In China few can afford anything but a vile adulteration mixed with pipe scrapings, compared to the smoking of collected cigar stumps or the ashes of spent tobacco pipes. In China a man who spends for opium the money which ought to procure the necessities of life cannot avoid speedy emaciation, misery, poverty, and death. In every case, however, where opium is smoked there is a marked deterioration physically, mentally, and morally. The victim becomes dirty in his person and generally down-at-heels. The Chinese never place any reliance upon an opium smoker's word or honesty. He must have opium even if he has to steal. When a man has acquired the *yin* or craving it is almost impossible to cure him. The Chinese have plenty of medicines advertised as the infallible cure. The usual remedy is a course of pills containing more or less opium, to be taken in decreasing doses till, it is claimed, the craving is gone. In the majority of cases, however, the man has changed from an opium smoker to an opium eater and he has simply jumped out of the frying pan into the fire.

The most serious phase of the opium evil is the increasing number of white people

who are learning to smoke. It is no uncommon thing to see young men and even women of our race stealing into Chinatown at night for "dope." It is appalling to see the number of depraved women upon whose discolored faces opium has stamped its indelible brand. Frequent arrests are made by the police of youths found in opium resorts. Scores of dens are to be found outside of Chinatown where the drug is regularly sold and smoked, and it is even finding its way into the fashionable homes of the western suburbs. The baser and more ignorant classes of the Chinese contemplate the spread of the vice among the whites with malicious satisfaction. They say, and with justice, we can but feel, "the 'foreign devils' brought opium to China and taught us first to smoke it, and now the curse is falling upon them."

But the main object of this paper is to call the attention of the people of this country to the shameful complicity of our government in this hateful traffic. How long is it since we ceased to scold the British people for her opium trade with China? From pulpit, platform, and press we have held England up to execration for deriving revenue from opium, forgetting that our own garments were polluted with the unclean thing. England exports from her Indian dependency the raw material that may be put to various uses, medicinal and otherwise. We import the manufactured article that can be used for no other purpose than that of vicious indulgence.

Few are aware that the trade is legalized by Congress, that we derive large revenues from its duties, that only American ships are allowed to bring it, only American citizens are allowed to import it, and that our government has even gone so far as to legalize and frame regulations for the manufacture of the smoking extract in this country. The opium best adapted for smoking purposes is the Indian drug, which contains less than five per cent of morphia. This is cooked, prepared, and tinned in Hong-Kong. The San Francisco customs statistics of the trade since 1880 are of startling interest:

Year.	Pounds imported.	Duties.	Price per pound.
1880	67,741	406,446	\$ 6.00
1881	77,333	463,998	"
1882	141,476	848,836	"
1883	220,867	1,325,202	"
1884	18,820	188,200	10.00
1885	54,434	554,340	"
1886	58,523	585,230	"
1887	65,397	653,970	"
1888	94,955	949,550	"
1889	44,674	446,740	"
1890	77,578	818,912	{ (McKinley Bill) \$12.00 part of year.
1891	63,189	758,268	"
1892	74,268	879,204	"
1893	52,393	628,716	"
1894	84,952	715,860	{ (Wilson Bill, Aug.) \$6.00.
1895	116,354	698,124	"
1896 (4 mos.)	43,642	261,852	"

From these figures it appears that for the past sixteen years in the face of heavy duties we have imported through the San Francisco customhouse alone an average of over 83,000 pounds of the drug every

year and collected an average yearly revenue of over \$700,000. These figures will have a stronger significance when it is borne in mind that the quantity required to fill a pipe is about the size and weight of a small bean. From 1880 to 1883, a period of four years, the import duty was six dollars per pound, the same as now under the Wilson Bill. During that time, a period marked by a comparatively low tariff, the volume of trade increased from 67,741 pounds in 1880 to 220,867 in 1883, with a corresponding increase in duties of \$918,756.

In 1884 the duty was raised to \$10.00 per pound, continuing for seven years, during which the regular importations fell off more than half. Then came the McKinley Bill, which raised the duty on all opium containing less than nine per cent of morphia. It will be observed that these



FLASH-LIGHT VIEW OF AN UNDERGROUND OPIUM DEN, WITH SOME OF THE SMOKERS CONCEALED.



FLASH-LIGHT VIEW OF AN UNDERGROUND OPIUM DEN, SHOWING DOUBLE ROW OF SMOKERS WITH FACES CONCEALED.

ten years of heavy duties were marked by a considerable reduction in the imports of the smoking extract, while the revenue continued unabated.

In August, 1894, the Wilson Bill reduced the duty to \$6, the same as from 1880 to 1883. What has been the result of this return to low duty on opium? Precisely the same as then—a tremendous increase in the regular trade. In 1894 the importation of prepared opium was 84,952 pounds. In 1894 it rose to 116,354 and there is every prospect that by next year the trade will reach the high mark of fifteen years ago. This is all the more remarkable when it is borne in mind that there are at least 50,000 less Chinese in the United States to-day than in 1883.

But it must not be inferred from this that a heavy duty tends to suppress the trade in

opium. During the years of heavy duties the regular traffic fell off more than half, although it is well known that during those years the local market was glutted. There is no doubt that heavy duties encouraged a vast smuggling trade, amounting, in the opinion of ex-Collector Phelps, to double the regular importations. There is so much money in the business, the factories at Victoria and Nanaimo, B. C., were so near at hand, and the drug was so easily stowed away, that bands of Artful Dodgers exercised their ingenuity to devise some new trick for bringing it across the border. Sometimes it was packed in innocent looking baggage trunks, carried to some distant point along the border, and checked to San Francisco, the check being sent by mail to some *white* man who received the trunk and handed it to the Chinese. The opium

was then placed in old Hong-Kong tins so as to avoid the scrutiny of the internal revenue officers, and placed on the market. An innocent looking plank is on exhibition at the customhouse which came with other lumber from the north. In the space hollowed out of the plank was found one hundred pounds of prepared opium packed so tight that the plank seemed like solid timber.

Only small quantities are smuggled from China and these have been discovered in hollow-soled Chinese shoes, hollow trunk lids, and leather pillows. Another ingenious device was to scoop out the cores of limes, pack them with the drug, and close them up. It is probable that under lighter tariff and increased customs vigilance there is not half as much smuggling carried on as formerly. Only 140 pounds of smuggled opium have been captured since the Wilson Bill went into effect, which is in marked contrast to the frequent heavy "catches" of the years previous.

Another source of supply is the domestic opium illicitly prepared in this country. The government has legalized the manufacture of this smoking extract on payment of \$10 interna-

tional revenue tax per pound. The business can only be carried on by American citizens, who must give bonds to the collector. As yet not a cent of revenue has been collected from this source. No American citizen could carry on the business except at a dead loss. The reason for this is simple: The best opium for smoking purposes is that which is manufactured out of crude Indian opium and the duty on this is as high as upon the manufactured article. The crude material required to make a pound of smoking extract



AN UNDERGROUND OPIUM DEN BY FLASHLIGHT.

would cost at least \$15 in customs dues alone besides the \$10 per pound imposed by the Internal Revenue Department. The profitable manufacture of the smoking extract being clearly an impossibility, there has sprung up extensive illicit manufacturing.

Undeterred by the penalty of \$1,000 fine and imprisonment imposed upon any person found cooking opium in violation of the law, the Chinese are able to flood the local market with an inferior kind of drug made out of Persian and Turkish opium. These kinds in their crude form are admitted free of duty because they contain more than nine per cent of morphia. While useful for medical purposes they have been supposed utterly useless for smoking, the excess of morphia producing skin eruptions and headaches when smoked. But the Chinese were not to be outdone. After a good deal of experimenting they have discovered some process by which the excess of morphia is precipitated and a fairly palatable preparation is made. The simplicity of the process and the inexpensive nature of the appliances used make this illicit manufacture possible and hundreds of Chinese are ready to run the risk. Ten dollars will furnish pans, kettles, and trays sufficient to defraud the government over \$100 per day.

The internal revenue officers have discovered these kitchens in every nook and corner. They have been attracted by the peculiar odor which once experienced is never forgotten. But the guard on watch has given the warning and the opium cooks have disappeared through a trapdoor before the officers have found ingress. There are the pans and kettles and opium in evidence, but the Chinamen have fled. To-morrow the rascals will purchase a new outfit and start again elsewhere. The cooking is usually done at night. By morning the drug is packed and on its way to the retailers. The internal revenue officers are at their wits' end to know how to stop this illicit business. Big confiscations of "dope" are made nearly every week, but the manufacturers generally

manage to escape and when an arrest is made it is hard to convict unless the prisoner was caught in the act. The officers declare it impossible to break up this nefarious business.

Chief Deputy Collector Loupe, so says the *San Francisco Chronicle*, has in the vaults of his office \$20,000 worth of this stuff, to destroy which he considers a "sinful waste," and therefore holds it pending the decision of the department. The rule of the Internal Revenue Department is very plain. No opium can be sold unless the bid offered is sufficient to pay the tax of \$10 per pound. Of course it is absurd to think of realizing the sum when the price of domestic opium is only \$4 per pound. The opium is therefore taken to Uncle Sam's furnace and burned in the presence of the officers, who certify to the contents of each package consumed.

The Customs Department follow a different rule in their disposal of smuggled opium. It is sold by auction after fifteen days' notice, generally at ridiculously low prices, and this smuggled opium finds its way to the Chinatown market. It is to be regretted that the Customs Department does not adopt the Internal Revenue Department's wholesome rule, and it is to be hoped that no consideration of value will influence the Internal Revenue Department to keep this "devil's dirt" out of the fiery furnace to which it belongs.

Fifty years ago 22,000 chests of opium were confiscated, from smuggling British ships at the mouth of the Canton River, worth \$11,000,000, yet the emperor To Kwong ordered it destroyed, preferring to sacrifice this valuable cargo rather than fill his depleted treasury with the proceeds of his people's ruin and shame. A few weeks ago the schooner *Henrietta* from Victoria, B. C., was boarded by the Hawaiian government and 1,400 pounds of opium extract, worth upwards of \$20,000, was seized, taken several miles from shore, where the tins were chopped open, and then dumped into the sea. How the unselfish philanthropy of that heathen emperor and the uncompromising resistance to

THE OPIUM TRAFFIC IN CALIFORNIA.



APPROACH TO AN UNDERGROUND OPIUM DEN: CHINAMAN ASTONISHED AT THE FLASH LIGHT.

wrong on the part of that little island government rebuke the sordidness of this great Christian nation that will legalize an infamous commerce for the sake of dollars stained with blood and infamy—yea, even the blood of its own citizens!

Whatever excuse there may be for importing crude opium for medicinal purposes there is nothing that can be said in defense of our admitting and taxing and collecting revenue from a drug that is specially prepared for vicious indulgence and which has already proved the ruin, physical and moral, of thousands of our own people. There is only one way to deal with the evil and that

is the plan suggested by the better class of Chinese in their petition to Congress many years ago: remove that opium that is manufactured for smoking purposes from the tariff, prohibit its importation and sale under heavy penalties, empower the officers of internal revenue to destroy the cursed stuff wherever it is found as contraband goods, and forever shut the treasury of this nation against a revenue derived from human misery, vice, and shame. It can be done if the step is taken soon. But if we wait until the traffic has taken hold of American capital and enthralled our people in its chains it may be too late.

JOEL CHANDLER HARRIS.

BY W. M. BASKERVILLE, A.M., PH.D. (LEIPSIC).

PROFESSOR OF ENGLISH LITERATURE IN VANDERBILT UNIVERSITY.

JOEL CHANDLER HARRIS was born in Eatonton, Putnam County, Georgia, December 9, 1848. Slight biographical and personal sketches of him have appeared in various periodicals, but the best account of his early life is to be found in "On the Plantation," one of the most interesting books that Mr. Harris has written. In this delightful volume it is not easy to tell "where confession ends and how far fiction embroiders truth." But the author has kindly left it to the reader to "sift the fact from the fiction, and label it to suit himself."

Our first glimpse of Mr. Harris is in the little post office of Eatonton, which is also a "country store," and much frequented for both purposes. He is sitting upon a rickety old faded green sofa, in a corner of which he used to curl up nearly every day, reading such stray newspapers as he could lay his hands on, and watching the people come and go. His look betrays shyness and sensitiveness, though it is full of observation. He is reading in a Milledgeville paper the announcement of a Mr. Turner, whose acquaintance he has recently made, that he will begin the publication the following Tuesday of a weekly newspaper, to

be called the *Countryman*. He has had a few terms in the Eatonton Academy, and read some of the best books of the eighteenth century. When the "Vicar of Wakefield" is mentioned his eye sparkles, for since he was six years of age that wonderful story has been a stimulus to his imagination, and made him eager to read all books. He is proud of his acquaintance with a real editor, and waits with great impatience for the first issue of the *Countryman*.

In the meanwhile we learn that he can not be called a studious lad, or at any rate that he is not at all fond of the books in his desk at the Eatonton Academy. On the

contrary, he is of an adventurous turn of mind, full of all sorts of pranks and capers; and plenty of people in the little town are ready to declare that he will come to some bad end if he is not more frequently dosed with what the old folks call "hickory oil." But the boy has nevertheless a warm heart, full of a strange sympathy with animals of all kinds, especially horses and dogs, and a deeper, tenderer sympa-



JOEL CHANDLER HARRIS.

thy with all members of the human race.

At last the first issue arrives, and is read from beginning to end—advertisements and all. The most important thing in it, as it

turned out, was the announcement that the editor wanted a boy to learn the printing business. The friendly postmaster furnished pen, ink, and paper, and the lad applied for the place and got it.

Mr. Turner lived about nine miles from Eatonton, on a plantation of some two thousand acres, which was well supplied with slaves, horses, dogs, and game of different kinds. He was a lover of books, and had a choice collection of two or three thousand volumes. His wealth also enabled him to conduct the only country newspaper in the world, which he did so successfully that it reached a circulation of nearly two thousand copies. On the plantation was a pack of well-trained harriers, with which the little printer hunted rabbits, and a fine hound or two of the Birdsong breed, with which he chased the red fox. With the negroes he learned to hunt coons and possums, and from them he heard those stories which have since placed their narrator in the list of the immortals.

At twelve years of age, then, Mr. Harris found himself in this ideal situation for the richest and most healthful development of his talents. Typesetting came easy, and the lad had the dogs to himself in the late afternoon and the books at night, and he made the most of both. The scholarly planter turned him loose to browse at will in his library, only now and then giving a judicious hint. The great Elizabethans first caught his fancy, and quaint old meditative and poetical Sir Thomas Browne became one of his prime favorites—as he is yet.

He made many friends among the standard authors that only a boy of a peculiar turn of mind would take to his bosom. But no book at any time has ever usurped the place of the inimitable "Vicar of Wakefield" in his affections—Goethe's, Scott's, Irving's, Thackeray's, all humanity's adorable Vicar. These two favorites have since that early period found worthy rivals in the Bible and Shakespeare, and he is specially serious when he talks of these or of his heroes, Lee, Jackson, and Lincoln. Job, Ecclesiastes, and Paul's writings are his prime favorites; but all good books interest

him more or less, and though he possesses only a few, they are the best, and they have been read and re-read. He likes a story and "human nature—humble, fascinating, plain, common human nature." It is these things which have shaped his life.

Consciously or unconsciously Mr. Harris has imbibed old-fashioned ways of simplicity, naturalness, and truth from his Shakespeare and Bible; has had ingrained in the fiber of his being the gentleness, delicacy, and purity of feeling which distinguish the good Vicar's author, and has conformed his life to that sentiment of Sir Thomas Browne's which "The Autocrat" considered the most admirable in any literature: "Every man truly lives so long as he acts his nature or some way makes good the faculties of himself."

Among these books he lived for several years and almost before he knew it his taste was formed. With the acquisition of knowledge went also hand in hand an observation of life and of nature. As he left his native village, in the buggy with Mr. Turner, he had observed how quickly his little companions returned to their marbles after bidding him good-by; and he had observed, too, how the high sheriff was "always in town talking politics," and talking "bigger than anybody." When he came to the plantation his observant eye took in everything, and the observations of the boy became the basis of the life-long convictions and principles of the man.

His greatest nature-gift, sympathy, put him in touch with dog and horse, with black runaway and white deserter, with the master and his slaves. These, he observed, treated him with more consideration than they showed to other white people, with the exception of their master. There was nothing they were not ready to do for him at any time of day or night. Taking him into their inner life, they poured a wealth of legendary folklore and story into his retentive ear, and to him revealed their true nature; for it is not a race that plays its tricks, as some one has said of nature, unreservedly before the eyes of everybody.

But this idyllic existence was sud-

denly ended. Sherman's "march through Georgia" brought a corps of his army to the Turner plantation, and when the foragers departed they left little behind them except a changed order of things. The editor-planter called up those of his former slaves that remained and told them that they were free. The *Countryman* passed away with the old order, devising, however, a rich legacy to the new. "A larger world beckoned [to the young writer] and he went out into it. And it came about that on every side he found loving hearts to comfort and strong and friendly hands to guide him. He found new associations, and formed new ties. In a humble way he made a name for himself, but the old plantation days still live in his dreams."

The *Wanderjahre* were few and uneventful. Now we find him setting his "string" on the *Macon Daily Telegraph*, then in a few months he is in New Orleans as a private secretary of the editor of the *Crescent Monthly*, keeping his hand in, however, by writing bright paragraphs for the city papers. In a short while he returns to Georgia to become the editor of the *Forsyth Advertiser*—one of the most influential weekly papers in the state. In addition to the editorial work, he set the type, worked off the edition on a hand press, and wrapped and directed his papers for the mail. His bubbling humor and pungent criticism of certain abuses in the state were widely copied, and specially attracted the attention of Col. W. T. Thompson, the author of "Major Jones' Courtship" and other humorous books, who at that time was editor of the *Savannah Daily News*. He offered Mr. Harris a place on his staff, which was accepted, and this pleasant association lasted from 1871 to 1876.

In the latter year a yellow fever epidemic drove him to Atlanta; he became at once a member of the editorial staff of the *Constitution*, and his literary activity began. Just before Mr. Harris went to Atlanta, Mr. S. W. Small had begun to give the *Constitution* a more than local reputation by means of humorous negro dialect sketches. His resignation shortly afterward made the pro-

prietors turn for aid to Mr. Harris, who, taking an old negro whom he had known on the Turner plantation and making him chief spokesman, brought out in several sketches the contrast between the old and the new condition of things.

But he soon tired of these, and one night he wrote the first sketch in "Legends of the Plantation," in which "Uncle Remus" initiates the "Little Boy," just as it now appears in his first published volume, entitled, "Uncle Remus: His Songs and His Sayings." Fame came at once, though the invincible modesty of the author still refuses to recognize it. A number of things enhanced the value of this production—the wealth of folklore, the accurate and entertaining dialect, the delightful stories, the exquisite picture of "the dear remembered days." But the true secret of the power and value of "Uncle Remus" and his "Sayings" does not lie solely in the artistic and masterly setting and narration. The enduring quality lies there, for he has made a past civilization "remarkably striking to the mind's eye," and shown that rare ability "to seize the heart of the suggestion, and make a country famous with a legend." But underneath the art is the clear view of life, humor, wit, philosophy, and "unadulterated human nature."

The southern plantation negro sprang from the child race of humanity, and possessed only so much civilization as his contact with the white man gave him. Like children, he used smiles, cunning, deceit, duplicity, ingenuity, and all the other wiles by which the weaker seek to accommodate themselves to the stronger. Brer Rabbit was his hero, and "it is not virtue that triumphs, but helplessness; it is not malice but mischievousness." In the course of time the negro became remarkable for both inherent and engrafted qualities. Gratitude he was distinguished for; hospitality and helpfulness were his natural creed; brutality was conspicuously absent, considering the prodigious depth of his previous degradation. He did not lack courage, industry, self-denial, or virtue. He did an immense amount of quiet think-

ing, and, with only such forms of expression as his circumstances furnished, he indulged in paradox, hyperbole, aphorism, sententious comparison, and humor. He treasured his traditions, was enthusiastic, patient, long-suffering, religious, reverent.

"Is there not poetry in the character?" asked Irwin Russell, the first, perhaps, to conceive and to delineate it with real fidelity to life. Since his all too untimely taking off many have attempted this subject; but no one has equaled the creator of "Uncle Remus."

Before the war Uncle Remus had always exercised authority over his fellow-servants. He had been the captain of the corn-pile, the stoutest at the log-rolling, the swiftest with the hoe, the neatest with the plow, the leader of the plantation hands. Now he is an old man, whose tall figure and venerable appearance are picturesque in the extreme, but he moves and speaks with the vigor of perennial youth. He is the embodiment of the quaint and homely humor, the picturesque sensitiveness—a curious exaltation of mind and temperament not to be defined by words—and the really poetic imagination of the negro race; and over all is diffused the genuine flavor of the old plantation.

With the art to conceal art, the author retires behind the scenes and lets this patriarch reveal negro life and character to the world. Now it is under the guise of Brer Rabbit, after his perilous adventure with the Tar-Baby and narrow escape from Brer Fox as he is seen "settin' cross-legged on a chinkapin log koamin' de pitch outen his har wid a chip," and "flingin' back some er his sass": "'Bred and bawn in a brier patch, Brer Fox; bred and bawn in a brier patch!'" Another phase is seen in "Why Brer Possum Loves Peace," a story of indolent good nature, questionable valor, and nonsensical wisdom: "'I don' min' fightin' no mo' dan you doze,' sez 'ee, 'but I declar' to grashus ef I kin stan' ticklin.' En' down ter dis day,'" continued Uncle Remus—"down ter dis day, Brer Possum's bound ter s'render w'en you tech him in de short ribs, en he'll laff ef he knows he's gwine ter be smashed fer it." But the

prevailing interest is centered in Brer Rabbit's skill in outwitting Brer Fox and the other animals, which is managed with such cleverness and good nature that we can but sympathize with the hero, in spite of his utter lack of conscience or conviction.

But the chief merit of these stories, as Mr. Page has remarked, springs directly from the fact that Uncle Remus knows them, is relating them, and is vivifying them with his own quaintness and humor, and is impressing us in every phase with his own delightful and lovable personality. Mr. Harris' skill in narrative is well-nigh perfect, and the conversation in which his books abound is carried on with absolute naturalness and fidelity to life. The habit of thought as well as of speech is strikingly reproduced. Not a word strikes a false note, not a scene or incident is out of keeping with the spirit of the life presented. No one has more perfectly preserved some of the most important traits of southern character, or more enchantingly presented some of the most beautiful phases of southern civilization.

Other phases of negro character, very different from those presented in the "Legends," appeared in the "Sayings" and in various "Sketches," which reproduce "the shrewd observations, the curious retorts, the homely thrusts, the quaint comments, and the humorous philosophy of the race of which Uncle Remus is a type." But in "Nights with Uncle Remus," "Daddy Jake the Runaway," and "Uncle Remus and His Friends" we returned again to the old plantation home; "daddy," "mammy," and the "field hands" lived once more with their happy, smiling faces; songs floated out upon the summer air, laden with the perfume of rose and honeysuckle and peach blossom, and mingled with the rollicking medley of the mocking bird; and we felt that somehow over the whole life the spell of genius had been thrown, rendering it immortal.

But it is with and through the negro that Mr. Harris has wrought this wonder, for as Mr. Page says: "No man who has ever written has known one tenth part about the

negro that Mr. Harris knows, and for those who hereafter shall wish to find not merely the words, but the real language of the negro of that section, and the habits of mind of all American negroes of the old time, his works will prove the best thesaurus.

Again a larger world beckoned to the writer, as to the boy, and he entered the field of original story-telling and wider creative ability with consummate literary art in "Mingo," a "cracker" tragedy, disclosing the pent-up rage of a century against aristocratic neighbors, antipathy to the negro, narrowness and pride, happily turned by Mingo's gratitude and watchful and protecting love for his young "mistiss'" fatherless and motherless little girl into a smiling comedy, closing with the pretty picture of "the sunshine falling gently upon his gray hairs, and the little girl clinging to his hand and daintily throwing kisses."

Mingo, drawn with genuine sympathy and true skill, is one of the author's masterpieces; but we are somehow specially attracted to Mrs. Feratia Bivins, whose "pa would 'a' bin a rich man, an' 'a' owned *niggers*, if it hadn't but 'a' bin bekase he sot his head agin stintin' of his stomach," and whose sharp tongue, homely wit, and indignant hate portray the first of a group of the Mrs. Poyser-like women who give spice as well as life to the author's pages.

Another is Mrs. Kendrick in "Blue Dave"—of which, by the bye, the author says, "I like 'Blue Dave' better than all the rest, which is another way of saying that is far from the best"—whose humor conceals her own emotions, and flashes a calcium light upon the weaknesses of others. "Well, well, well!" said Mrs. Kendrick, speaking of the quiet, self-contained, elegant, and rather prim Mrs. Dedham. "She always put me in mind of a ghost that can't be laid on account of its pride. But we're what the Lord made us, I reckon, and people deceive their looks. My old turkey gobbler is harmless as a hound puppy, but I reckon he'd bust if he didn't up and strut when strangers are in the front porch."

"Uncle Remus," "Mingo," "Blue Dave,"

and "Balaam" belong to the class which "has nothing but pleasant memories of the discipline of slavery, and which has all the prejudices of caste and pride of family that were the natural results of the system." But "Free Joe" presents another phase—this heart-tragedy brought about by the inhumanity of man and the pitiless force of circumstances, and at its close his skilful manner of conveying a lesson is admirably shown. Nowhere has the helpless wretchedness of the dark side of slavery been more clearly recognized or more powerfully depicted.

Other stories, as "At Teague Poteet's," "Trouble on Lost Mountain," and "Azalia," show a steady gain in the range of Mr. Harris' creative power. The keenest interest was awakened when the first part of "At Teague Poteet's" came out in *The Century* of May, 1883, and the reader who happened to turn to the *Atlantic* for the same month and read "The Harnt that Walks Chilhowee" must have been surprised at the revelation which these two admirable stories made of the real and potent romance of the mountains and valleys of Tennessee and Georgia. This was a longer and more sustained effort than Uncle Remus had ever attempted. It evinced an eye for local color, appreciation of individual characteristics, and the ability to catch the spirit of a people that could be as open as their valleys or as rugged, enigmatical, and silent as their mountains. Scene and character were vividly real, and the story was told with consummate art and unflagging interest till the climax was reached.

"Trouble on Lost Mountain" sustained his reputation as a story-teller and added the element of tragic power. Surely here was the promise of a fully developed novel with the old plantation life for a background and the nation for its scope. But in "Azalia," for instance, the southern general and his mother are rather conventional, and Miss Hallie is insipid, though through them we do catch glimpses of old southern mansions, with their stately yet simple architecture, admirably illustrative of the lives and characters of the owners, and of the

unaffected, warm, and gracious old-time hospitality. The northern ladies, too, admirably described as they are in a few words, are slight sketches rather than true presentments.

This story is particularly rich in types, but the real life in its humor and its pathos is in the "characters." Mrs. Haley, a lineal descendant of Mrs. Poyser; William, the little imp of sable hue, and Emma Jane Stucky—the representative of that indescribable class of people known as the piney-woods "tackies"—whose "pale, unhealthy-looking face, with sunken eyes, high cheek bones, and thin lips that seemed never to have troubled themselves to smile—a burnt-out face that had apparently surrendered to the past and had no hope for the future"—remains indelibly etched upon the memory, making its mute appeal for

human sympathy and helpful and generous pity. In the eleven volumes* which he has published he has preserved traditions and legends, photographed a civilization, perpetuated types, created one character.

Humor and sympathy are his chief qualities, and in everything he is simple and natural. Human character is stripped of tireless details. The people speak their natural language, and act out their little tragedies and comedies according to their nature. "We see them, share their joys and griefs, laugh at their humor, and in the midst of all, behold, we are taught the lesson of honesty, justice, and mercy."

* Uncle Remus: His Songs and His Sayings; Uncle Remus and His Friends; Mingo and Other Sketches in Black and White; Balaam and His Master and Other Stories; Free Joe and the Rest of the World; Daddy and Other Stories; Jake and Other Stories; Nights with Uncle Remus; On the Plantation; Evening Tales, Translated from the French; Little Mr. Thimblefinger and His Queer Country; Mr. Rabbit at Home.

THE FREE COINAGE OF SILVER.*

BY GENERAL JAMES B. WEAVER.

I SHALL not burden the reader of this article with statistics. I seek to state in my own way certain well-established and conceded facts, and from these to draw what I conceive to be necessary and reasonable conclusions upon which it will be safe for the patriotic voter to act when he comes to cast his ballot. I seek to show the necessity for more money of some kind, and then that it is safe to resort to the unrestricted coinage of silver at 16 to 1 as a means of increasing our money supply. The world is bimetallic. The fact that gold is used exclusively in some countries as primary money, silver in others, while in still others both gold and silver are used, justifies the declaration that this busy world of ours is double in its primary media of exchange. The limited supply of both of these metals combined forces the world to use

both. About 900,000,000 people to the south and west of us use only silver as standard money. About 150,000,000 elsewhere use both gold and silver, and about 200,000,000, including Great Britain, Germany, and the United States, have the single gold standard. This includes all the organized peoples worth considering in this connection.

The advocates of the gold standard, one and all, declare with great zeal and apparent earnestness that they want a money equal to that used by the most enlightened and advanced nations of the world. We claim to be somewhat advanced ourselves and were constituted a republic in order that we might be the exemplar of the world and lead other nations and peoples out of bondage into the gladsome light of liberty. But nevertheless they tell us Great Britain and the German Empire stand at the head of the enlightened nations and that they have adopted the gold standard and that is conclusive. The United States must do likewise. Our forefathers fled to a savage

*Two articles on the money question appear in this issue, one advocating the free coinage of silver, the other favoring the gold standard of currency. The question is presented by a leading representative of each side, Gen. James B. Weaver of Iowa, the Populist candidate for president in 1892, and Dr. W. G. Sumner, professor of political and social science in Yale University.

wilderness and their children poured out an awful sum of blood and treasure to escape the clutches of enlightened England. But their descendants have already squandered ten fold more in an insane and break-neck effort to return.

These advocates of the British system do not stop to inquire or explain why that nation adopted gold, in whose interest it was adopted, or how the transition from one standard to the other affected the great body of the people. Motives and consequences are of no value to them. Sir Archibald Alison, the eminent English historian, writing long after Parliament passed the Monetary Act of 1816, long after the submerged millions whom it helped to destroy were silent in the charnel house, and long after the wealth which they had created had been transferred by legislative pillage to a set of conscienceless freebooters—this renowned English student, scholar, and historian declares that the act of 1816, and its companion acts of contraction and resumption, were passed in cold blood to enrich a class of gentry who had fixed incomes—wealthy security holders—and that they were passed in cruel disregard of the rights of the home owners, debtors, shop-keepers, operatives, laborers, and agriculturists of the United Kingdom.

Jonathan Duncan and other eminent English authorities corroborate Mr. Alison and unite in giving the same testimony. This eminent historian, after thoroughly considering all the facts, declares that the return to the gold standard in England, following the close of the Napoleonic wars, while it enriched the few, hurled the great body of the people of Great Britain from the lofty height of unparalleled prosperity and happiness headlong into the abyss of bankruptcy and the hell of despair.

The German people, in an unsuspecting hour, were crowded to make the same fatal leap shortly after the Franco-Prussian War. Her statesmen who are nearest the people and the humanitarians of the empire are now struggling to get from under the wreckage caused by the dreadful blunder of twenty years ago. And we in America have

had a duplication of the whole British conspiracy and scheme—from motive and intent to overt act. When the British acts were passed the masses were prosperous and happy, and little dreamed that their government could or would rob and enslave them. They loved the cross of St. George with a fervor that knew no bounds. They had honored their beloved isle with their valor, enriched it with their blood, and filled the country with wealth by their industry.

So with us. After the war closed times were so good and money so plentiful that a living came with but trifling effort and as a matter of course. For nearly a decade the people scarcely took their eyes off the fixed stars in the glorious blue field of our flag. Not one had wandered from its orbit. Little dreamed they of the cruelties which were in store for them through the accursed laws which were in contemplation. Not one in ten thousand of our working people—not one in a thousand among our business men—knew what had taken place in Britain between 1816 and 1845, or that it was intended that we should follow the disastrous example of that country. A prosperous and happy future stretched out before us.

Our British advisers were of course thoroughly familiar with the wreck and ruin which had been wrought over there on the one hand, and the fortunes which had been made on the other hand under exactly similar circumstances. Senator Sherman, with full knowledge of what was in contemplation, declared in the Senate January 27, 1869, that it was impossible for us to take the voyage upon which we were about to sail without shipwreck. He said that it meant "a period of loss, danger, prostration of trade, suspension of enterprise, bankruptcy, and disaster to every person except the capitalist out of debt, or the salaried officer or annuitant." Was he not a grim prophet standing on the shore of a troubled sea? Alas! this sea is now full of the wreckage which he foresaw, and upon the shore everywhere lie heaped the mute and numberless victims of the storm. It is best of course that memory is one of the faculties of the human soul; but it does seem that

it would be a blessing if the memory of the American people could close forever over the dismal and ghastly stretch from 1873 to 1896. How cruel and callous has been each succeeding administration! With what utter lack of pity have they kept the poor upon the rack!

But why complain? The advocates of the gold standard tell us this suffering is necessary in order that we may preserve the public credit and take our place abreast with the most enlightened nations of the world. They say that popular discontent has destroyed confidence and that the suffering of the people would be less rigorous if the masses would be less complaining. And must the other nations travel this awful road and endure like suffering in order to reach this high plane of civilization? Is there no other way? If it were indispensable that we should travel this road of course all other nations must at once take up their dreary march. If wisdom, statesmanship, and sound morality demand the gold standard, then of course the nine hundred million silver standard people, including our neighbor and sister republic Mexico, should at once shoulder their cross. Surely they should take their places along with the most enlightened nations. To this end our missionaries, rum exporters, and opium importers have been arduously laboring.

The fact that these unenlightened nations produce but little gold and would have to issue bonds, and then be able to get but little, should not deter them. Such trifles have not checked our statesmen in their effort to make this country shine with the other illuminated nations. Through providence, war, cessions of territory, and treaty stipulations Mexico seems to have been given her portion in silver. But she should not be discouraged. She still has left that unfailing resource of enlightened statesmanship, the bond. China, Japan, and India should no longer doggedly cling to silver. They should throw it to the winds and rise at once to the gold standard. But they seem to fear that there is not gold enough to go around and hence they must remain in darkness. Will not some of our enlight-

ened statesmen hasten to the relief of this billion of benighted people? Give our missionaries a rest, and let the distinguished author of the Resumption Act and the present secretary of the treasury and his predecessors advance all along the line, from the republic of Mexico to Greenland's icy mountains and India's coral strand.

This benighted billion are stubbornly shutting their eyes to the great economic truth that while money might become scarce and private credit seriously suffer if they should discard silver which is scarce and hard to get, and adopt gold which is scarcer and still harder to obtain, yet they would be compensated by an increased public credit and the enhanced purchasing power of their new circulating medium—whenever its owners could be induced to let it circulate. But they still insist that silver is scarce enough for all practical purposes and possesses sufficient purchasing power to suit the most covetous.

Mr. Wharton Barker, of Philadelphia, fresh from a tour through China, told the writer in January last that upon inquiry he found the wages of a farm laborer in China to be one silver dollar per month, reckoned in our money, and the laborer housed and boarded himself. The reader will observe that China is not cursed with a cheap silver dollar. Their money, though made of silver, has something like twenty times the purchasing power of our own. This country will soon be a close second, however, if prices continue to fall a few years longer.

Gold, when it reigns alone, is a cruel tyrant and void of mercy. Its scarcity and the fact that it cannot be subdivided into coins of small denomination for circulation among the poor render it a convenient tool of the usurer and the oppressor. Wherever it holds exclusive sway the natural rights of man are held in low esteem. It is the money of the covetous who are at war with the commandments of God, and hence with the welfare of his children. Even its tender mercies are cruel. It is always scarce and inadequate to the wants of men, and when it shrinks in volume it hides regardless of human suffer-

ing, and its withdrawal is the signal for all other forms of money to shrink away also. Our late war period furnished abundant proof of this, and at least two of the mournful decades which have elapsed since the return of peace furnish striking corroboration of this important truth.

According to the treasury statement of February, 1886, the amount of money then in circulation among us was \$1,594,000,000. (See report and accompanying papers made to the Forty-ninth Congress, February, 1886, by Representatives Bland, Bynum, and Latham.) We then had something over 60,000,000 people. On the first day of this month (August), ten years and a half later, the secretary states officially that the amount now in circulation is \$1,514,000,000. So we now have less money by \$80,000,000 than we had ten years ago, and we have at present more than 70,000,000 people. Will any one claim that this is humane, necessary, and just? In whose interest was this cruel thing done, if not in the interest of those who own the gold? Is it not enough to damn forever all who would justify it? While our money was being contracted \$80,000,000 our population had increased 10,000,000!

It is hard to comprehend what an increase of ten millions in population signifies. It is about three times as many people as we had in the colonies at the period of our Revolution. Another illustration will enable the reader to grasp this enormous increase in population during the decade specified. The ten great cities which I here name have approximately the following population:

New York	1,600,000
Brooklyn	800,000
Chicago	1,500,000
Philadelphia	1,100,000
St. Louis	600,000
Boston	500,000
San Francisco	300,000
Baltimore	450,000
Pittsburg	250,000
New Orleans	250,000
St. Paul and Minneapolis	300,000

The reader will see that the aggregate population of these eleven great cities is 7,650,000. In other words they fall more than two and a quarter millions short of

equaling our increase of population during the last ten years. Now think for a moment of the vast sum of money necessary to transact the daily business of a single one of these cities, and then of all combined, and we will catch some adequate idea of the cause of the present universal collapse and business paralysis. Can we not all see that this increase of population has increased the demand for money enormously, and can we not also see that this increased demand is sure to augment from year to year? And can we not see that it is this increased demand which has caused money to advance in value and hence in purchasing power? It is too valuable for use and hence hides away. As it does so it takes on new strength, and when it sallies forth it devours the world. Think of it! An increase in our population equal to the population of ten great cities of a million souls each since 1886, accompanied by a contraction of our circulating medium! Could anything be more monstrous? The human mind is not capable of fully comprehending the enormity of such a transaction. These people are bone of our bone and flesh of our flesh, and yet we have not provided one dollar for their relief. This is but a glimpse of what has been going on since 1865. Brave men are we to rob our own children when they are helpless and crying to us for succor.

The advocates of unrestricted coinage of gold and silver at the established legal ratio of 16 to 1 feel confident that the triumph of their cause in November will put an end to this abominable and murderous condition of things. Their victory will be followed by a steady and healthy increase in the volume of money. This will restore hope, and human rights will once more find protection under the bright folds of our flag.

Our adversaries claim that silver will be a cheap and depreciated money, and hence will bring trouble instead of relief. It would indeed be a hard matter to precipitate a worse condition of things than we now have. When the old slave was being flogged with a rawhide he implored his

cruel master to try the black snake just for a change. The poor wretch concluded that a change could not make his condition any worse and that it might afford comparative relief.

But the advocates of the gold standard offer no relief. *Status quo* is their motto. They would have things continue as they are, except that the greenbacks and treasury notes are all to be funded and the country is to be delivered over to the tender mercies of the banks. With these monstrous additions, matters are to remain *status quo*. Two of our constitutional sources of money supply, the mintage of silver and the issue of legal tender treasury notes, are closed against the people, and if the gold men triumph they are to remain closed. The Constitution is to be cast aside and the corporation is to reign supreme in its stead.

If the gold men are sincere in calling for coinage by international agreement they have practically conceded the justice of our cause. They concede that unrestricted coinage of silver is essential to our welfare. There is nothing left of the contention except the question of who shall authorize the mints to be opened. The gold men want to arbitrate the matter before the crowned heads. We want to follow the example of our fathers and proceed as an independent nation and manage our own affairs. We throw ourselves upon the good sense and patriotism of the American people. They appeal to the foes of free government.

Our adversaries tell us that if we succeed we shall be inundated with cheap silver from every nation under heaven, gold will leave our shores, and we shall be ruined. But the writer is pained to know that neither the silver standard people nor the double standard folk can spare their silver for shipment to this country. If they ship it hither what will they use at home? They have but a trifling *per capita* circulation now, and nearly a billion of these people have no gold at all. The writer once saw that dire calamity, the departure of gold, overtake this country. During four years of war and fourteen years of succeeding

peace gold refused to circulate and was kept for sale. Boys were born during this suspension of specie payments and reached military age. They grew to be handsome, stalwart, respectable young fellows without ever seeing a coin dollar. The people cared but little for specie. The greenback met every want and the people were fully employed, prosperous, and happy. All our troubles have come upon us since we closed the mints against silver, adopted the policy of contraction, and started on our insane hunt for gold. Conditions will continue to grow more and more deplorable until we have the wisdom to call a halt, about face, and retrace our steps.

But let us inquire how much silver there is in the world. If it is all likely to come hither we should set our house in readiness for the tidal wave. All authorities concur in placing the amount at a fraction over four billion dollars, consisting of coin and bullion available for coinage. This is the world's supply of silver, and it includes our own stock as well as that in other parts of the world. Now suppose the inundation should really come. After every penny's worth of silver has reached our shores we will then have here four billions seeking coinage and investment. We have seventy million people. This would give us not more than \$58 *per capita* of silver for our present population. It is highly probable that there are advocates of the single gold standard residing even in the Middle and Eastern States who would be reckless enough to accept their distributive share without a murmur.

All this talk about cheap silver money, fifty-cent dollars, scaling down of debts, repudiation, and money of enlightened nations is the merest bosh and is intended by the originators to darken counsel and obscure the real issue. In this mighty civic struggle is bound up the question whether debtors have any rights which creditors are bound to respect—whether our circulating medium shall at all times be kept equal to the wants of the people, or whether it shall be manipulated to stimulate and gratify the avarice of usurers and plunderers of mankind. In fact the authority of the golden

rule is involved as well as the entire curriculum of human freedom.

If the advocates of the gold standard would, for a single day's campaign, disclose their real aims it is not probable they could carry a single county in the Union. They know that they aim at dear money and cheap property for all time, with all which that may signify to the toiling millions of the earth. The real question at issue is this: Who shall issue the money of this mighty nation and control its volume—the banks or the government? If the mints are once more thrown open the banks will largely lose control of the volume of money. If they are further forced to surrender their power to issue their notes, and the treasury assumes this function as the Constitution requires, their control over the volume is gone forever. If the Constitution is to remain

supreme and the Declaration of Independence is to be cherished by our people the government must discharge this specific and clearly defined duty in the interest of the whole people. It must keep the mints open to the coinage of both metals alike, and the treasury ready, under proper safeguards, to supply legal tender paper sufficient to meet any acknowledged deficiency in the out-put of the mines. This power must be lodged somewhere, and it has been wisely placed in the hands of the general government instead of with money speculators and banking corporations. When these things are acknowledged and carried into effect the oppressor will be overthrown, the reign of the money king will be ended in the New World, and our great American people will have an enlightened system of finance.

THE SINGLE GOLD STANDARD.

BY W. G. SUMNER, LL. D.

PROFESSOR OF POLITICAL AND SOCIAL SCIENCE IN YALE UNIVERSITY.

THE single gold standard is to be maintained in this article without any reference to an international coinage agreement, which is repudiated as absolutely as it is by the silver men. Such an agreement for the purpose of trying bimetallism is a chimera in politics and diplomacy. If any nations wanted to try the experiment, the United States ought not to consent to be a party to it, because it would be unspeakable folly. Neither is any saving clause inserted here to the effect that silver ought to be used as money so far as possible, or anything to that effect. We do not use money in order to make a demand for anything. If we want money we should seek the material to make it of which will answer our purpose best. It is no object to use silver, and the attempt of the silver producers to organize a political agitation to force us to use their product for our money, whether it is consonant with our interests to do so or not, will stand in history as an unparalleled and unwarranted

abuse of the institutions of democratic self-government.

The single gold standard is advocated here as the best and only monetary system on which to-day any first-class civilized nation can construct a sound financial system; securing to itself the best facilities possible, so far as money is concerned, for its industries; establishing security, justice, peace, and contentment for its people in their dealings with each other, so far as money has anything to do with this; and consequently purifying its political institutions from interested abuse, so far as a bad currency offers chances for such abuse.

The question of what material money should consist is one entirely of convenience and expediency. Attempts have been made to argue that God meant gold and silver to be our money; that the relative proportions in which these metals exist in the globe indicate that they are the right materials of which to make money. These are obviously a part of the mysticism

of the subject. There is not the least foundation for any such notions. Copper has been very widely used for money. Tin, nickel, and platinum have also been used and compounds of aluminum. There is no more occasion for any mystic notions as to the material to be used in the case of money than in the case of houses. Skins, leaves, wood, stone, brick, and iron have been used for houses. If we ever find it convenient to do so, we may build houses of any other material. The case of money is in no wise different. If it ever happens that some other material is discovered or invented which will answer the purposes of money better than anything yet used, men will adopt it, just as they use new materials for textile fabrics, for boats, for shoes and hats, and so on through the whole catalogue of useful things. We are perfectly free to discuss the question what we shall use as money, as a question of convenience and nothing else.

There is no such thing as "constitutional" money in the United States. Law-makers of one generation could not limit the freedom of later generations in respect to the use of materials in the arts, and our Constitution-makers never attempted it. Assertions to the contrary are entirely destitute of foundation and are intended only to prejudice the question.

The gold standard is a product of evolution in monetary institutions. It is as much an improvement in the medium of exchange as electric cars are an improvement in transportation. It is a permanent improvement. It may yield to something better hereafter, since the line of improvement never ends, but it will never turn backward to a double standard of any kind, or to silver or to copper. If the unenlightened and headstrong determination to abandon it for silver should prevail, then, after a period of confusion and distress, we should have to get back to it again.

The single gold standard, it may be said, was never invented by anybody. It came about from the attempts, in England, during the eighteenth century, to make the old inherited double standard work. Observa-

tion of the phenomena presented by the coinage, under the effects of the laws and the market, led to the device, for it is really a device to attain the ends of convenient coinage and solve the difficulties. The subsidiary coins are reduced to tokens, having less value than they should have in proportion to the gold standard coins. They are not coined for private account, are therefore manufactured for sale by the state as they are called for, and are legal tender only for a limited sum. They are sold by the state only at their nominal value (two silver half dollars are sold for one gold dollar) and the state buys them back in sums of \$20 or multiples. There is, therefore, a nominal profit to the state (seigniorage), but it is offset by the loss which would be incurred by buying the coins all in again, which the state is responsible to do, since the plan does not contemplate a fraud by the state. As new supplies can be obtained from the mint only by buying the subsidiary coins at a gold dollar for a hundred cents in them, and as they can be sold back again at the same rate, the amount out is always so much as is needed for "change" and hence the value is maintained. It is an application of the principle of monopoly.

The amount of subsidiary silver coinage which the circulation of the United States has held since the resumption of specie payments is about forty-five million dollars. It will take no more.

The silver dollars now in circulation are maintained at value in the same way and are really subsidiary coins. No formal redemption is provided for them, but they are received for dues to the government at gold value, and so are carried out of the circulation into the treasury. The circulation holds about fifty millions of them at par and every effort to force out more of them has failed. The government stamp has nothing to do with the matter except to identify the coins which are of due weight and fineness. The laws of value and the public convenience do the rest.

What then is the "standard"? Assertions are current that a gold eagle owes

part of its "value" to law. The law does nothing but give orders to the mint man how heavy and how fine to make the coins. He is told that, if people bring gold to him to be coined, he shall make coins of two or three sizes as called for, being fractions or multiples of a coin called an eagle which he shall make to weigh 258 grains and to be nine parts fine in ten, so that it shall contain 232.2 grains of fine gold. The single dollar is not coined but its proportion would be 23.22 grains. Ten dollars is not therefore the "value" of 258 grains nine tenths fine; it is the same identical thing in a manufactured form. Its value is the things for which it will exchange, and that is set in the market and is simply prices. The "standard" of value or prices is therefore the value of this unit.

In the beginning this unit was historical or arbitrary. No standard is rational; not even that of the metric system. Congress might have decreed that the "unit" should be 100 grains or 1,000 grains. Then the mint would have cut the gold into coins of that size. The owners of the gold, when they received their coins back from the mint, would have carried them into the market and would have found out what they could get for them. This would have been their "value." Congress would not have determined their value but only their size and weight. This is what it did do and all it ever could do. To fix the value of coins is to set prices. Although the United States is so "big," its government cannot set prices. What it does with coins is what it does with weights and measures. It orders that a pound shall be the weight of a designated piece of brass kept on deposit. At the outset it might have selected a piece of any size as the unit and standard. As soon as it was fixed, the people began to make contracts about "pounds," referring to that lump of metal and knowing that the courts would enforce contracts by reference to it. Hence it is clear that the standard of weights, measures, and values must be single, simple, unchangeable, verifiable, strictly defined, and enforceable.

A double standard is an absurdity. If there are two which are equivalent, there is only one. If there are two which are not equivalent, one will be taken and the other left, and there will be but one. It must be clearly understood that what is called a "double standard" in coinage means simply an open mint for two metals. The state takes no more risk or responsibility in this than in the former case. The law directs the mint man to this effect: "If they bring you silver cut it into pieces weighing $412\frac{1}{2}$ grains each, nine tenths fine, and give it back to them. If they bring you gold cut it into pieces weighing 258 grains, nine tenths fine, and give it back to them." The former are to be called dollars and the latter eagles and each of the latter is to be assumed equal to ten of the former. If the people bring nothing to the mint the mint is idle. Thus the government is no party in interest in the mint at all.

If the silver dollars weigh $412\frac{1}{2}$ grains ($371\frac{1}{4}$ grains fine contents) and the tenth part of a gold eagle is 25.8 grains (23.22 grains fine contents), then the former weighs 15.988 times as much as the latter. This is the "mint ratio" which is currently quoted as 16 to 1. Any coinage law consists simply of directions for the mint-master. If coins of two metals are provided for, both to be lawful solvents of debts, a ratio between the two must result. This ratio must remain unchanged; otherwise coins of different weights bearing the same name would be in circulation, unless, at every change, a complete re-coinage was executed. But the ratio of value in the market between $412\frac{1}{2}$ grains of silver and 25.8 grains of gold is liable to constant variations. If, therefore, they were of equal value when the law was passed and the coinage begun, they cease to be so very soon.

Now as soon as the assumption is made that one eagle equals ten dollars an option is opened for the public. Is it better to take gold to the mint and get eagles or to take silver and get dollars? Suppose that, in the market, 258 grains of gold will buy 4,150 grains of silver. The

former, if taken into the mint, will be made into an eagle which will pay ten dollars of debts. The latter, if taken there, will be cut into ten silver dollars and leave twenty-five grains over. Any man who had gold would exchange it in the market for silver and take that to the mint. Silver only would appear there; gold never. The $412\frac{1}{2}$ grain silver dollar would be the only coin and would become the standard. If the relative value of gold and silver changed, the opposite case might occur. If the law should be changed so as to alter the relative weight of the coins, the coinage could be turned from one metal to the other. This system sins against the most essential requirements of a good standard. It is not single, or simple, or unchangeable, or strictly defined. It is at the sport of all influences which affect the value of either metal and is at the risk of political interference.

The single gold standard has existed in fact, in this country, since 1834 with the exception of the period 1863 to 1879, when the greenback was the standard. The issue is whether to throw over this gold standard and go to silver, with an act of bankruptcy at fifty cents on the dollar, or not.

The issue in reference to the retaining or overthrowing of the single gold standard is raised by two parties. There are those who say that the money of account in all countries ought to consist of both gold and silver indissolubly linked together at a determined ratio of value to each other. This dogma is bimetallism properly so called, and that term ought to be restricted to this notion. The practical project connected with it is to unite the leading nations in an agreement that they will adopt uniform coinage laws for the free coinage of both metals at the determined ratio. It is asserted that if this were done it would produce such a money of account as the first proposition calls for and that it would continue indefinitely without variation.

The other party wants the United States to go over from the gold standard to the silver standard, dropping the gold dollar of 23.22 grains of fine gold and taking up that of $371\frac{1}{4}$ grains of fine silver, which is worth

at present fifty-three one hundredths of the former. In this second proposition the "international coinage union" is dropped in scorn and derision, having served the only purpose of which it is capable, viz., to break the way for this second proposition. It is asserted that the United States is big enough to have a money system of its own and that it ought not to wait for anybody. We have been surfeited by this kind of flim-flam in the discussion of public questions. We cannot deal with cases by swagging assertions. It is easy to affirm that an increase of demand, other things remaining equal, will raise value, but it is utterly impossible to predict *to what degree* an increased demand, even if its amount were definitely known, will raise value. When some men tell us that they are sure that the United States is big enough to do it alone, they are only speaking a little more rashly and irresponsibly than those who tell us that they are convinced that an international coinage union could do it.

The former of these two projects (bimetalism) is not worth serious discussion. It has captivated a few persons and has contributed to the spread of fallacious notions on the general subject, but it has never been popular and has dropped out of sight. It is based on the notion that there is not or may not be "enough money," and it aims to unite all the gold and all the silver in existence in a composite money the total amount of which shall act on prices and credits. It will be observed, however, that, if this scheme were practicable, it would not change the unit of value, and would be of no use to debtors.

The second plan is advocated because it is believed that it would help debtors. It would, it is thought, in effect, halve all outstanding debts, all of which, since January 1, 1879, have been contracted on the gold standard. Here then are two projects which have an entirely different character in one respect, and it is most important to notice it carefully because the advocates of silver go backward and forward from one to the other, in the course of the argument, without notice. If the project is to give us

silver dollars, which will be raised to gold value, then the project is a useless one for any interest except that of the silver miner. If the project is to do any good to the debtors, it must mean that the silver dollar is wanted because it is worth only half as much as a gold one, and is not expected to rise much, if any. The silver advocates cannot be allowed to argue that their scheme is not repudiation because it will raise silver to the coinage ratio (which is about the only rag of bimetallism which they have borrowed), and then argue that it will raise prices and halve debts because it will not raise the silver dollar.

The proposition for the free coinage of silver, 371 $\frac{1}{4}$ grains of pure silver being named a dollar and authorized by law to discharge a debt contracted for 23.22 grains of fine gold, is a proposition for a single silver standard. Bimetallism and every other scheme of a double standard is swept aside and we have a simple and clear proposition. There is nothing before us but the plain issue toward which we have been moving since the Bland Act of 1878. The issue has been postponed by the policy of the executive under all administrations, and by the fact that for years there was a large surplus revenue.

It should be noticed in passing, although it lies outside of the immediate subject, that no inflation by a debasement of the coinage is actually practicable in the manner which is proposed. This notion of free coinage, rise of prices, halving debts, etc., as a program of regular steps to a defined result, which is now being discussed, is utterly impracticable. It would meet with resistance. The proposed victims are by no means destitute of means of defense. There would result a social war of the most disastrous character. It would be found that the conception of monetary affairs on which this program is planned is childish in its crudeness and ineptitude. Not a step would work as is imagined. We should have a paralysis of industry and a complete arrest of our social functions, if we tried to halve all debts. What would issue from this is uncertain, but that it would not be what the silver people dream of, as a

simple cancellation of half their debts and "good times" with high prices, is very certain. It would be universal bankruptcy and ten years of liquidation.

The silver men now tell us that they know that free coinage will cause a panic, but that after two or three years it will bring us around to prosperity. What charge have they ever brought against gold which, even if it were true, would be as bad as what they avow in regard to silver? These men are reaching out for the political control of this country, in order to carry us through this frightful experiment, for the results of which we have no guarantee but their assertion, and not one of them shows any knowledge of monetary laws or any business sagacity. The passion and malice which would be engendered no man can describe, and its effects on all our political and social institutions would be fatal. Besides this, there are practical difficulties in the way of carrying out the coinage of silver and its substitution in the currency which are so great as to make the scheme impracticable. These could be and would be met by issuing paper "based on silver." This means that, in fact and practice, the project is one of paper inflation. About this there should be no doubt or mistake. Once started under cover of "remonetizing silver," the gravitation of the scheme and its own inherent impossibilities would carry it on into an actual measure of unlimited paper inflation. Why buy a lot of silver and pile it away in the ground when all the purposes are actually accomplished by printing notes? A free-coinage victory would not bring about a silver currency, but an irredeemable paper currency.

As we have said, however, this statement of the real ultimate result which will follow from the free coinage of silver is a digression from the question of the standard in the coinage which is properly before us, and to that we return.

The great advantage of the single gold standard is that it furnishes a simple and exact standard for transactions. It satisfies the requirement of exactness in the standard of measurement which is just as important

here as in physics. The greater the transactions of civilized nations the finer the shades of difference which become decisive. Hence this class of transactions is only possible where exactness of measurement is possible. All the great transactions are credit transactions. The great function of money in such transactions is as a standard of reference for the definition of the essential terms of the transaction. In the modern world this function of money transcends all others. Coinage changes, the wear of coins, the degree of accuracy in the workmanship of a mint, the minutest facilities or obstacles in the usages of banks and mints in a given country, enter into the exchange transactions of that country with every other.

It is the study of these facts which teaches us the great importance of the highest exactitude, simplicity, and directness in the standard coinage, which is the ultimate unit of measurement for everything else. A country which exports its chief staple products is especially the one which needs to eliminate every element of uncertainty or fluctuation and to make its money as accurate and stable as possible. Of course all this applies with the greatest force to the *single* standard. There is not an argument for bimetallism which is not good for trimetallism or ten-metallism. The world has come up through a long struggle with inferior and confused coins, the history of which is as tragical as any history of war or pestilence, to a single commodity as standard money. The device for securing it is not yet a century old. To abandon it is simply to travel back on the road by which we have come.

It is another and very great advantage of

the single gold standard that it stimulates the development of credit institutions. This is one of the reasons why the outcry that there is not gold enough is destitute of importance. The gold standard makes possible the institutions and devices by which money is economized and it leads to their development. The English sovereign has become a world's money. Wherever in the world there is doubt about the local currency, parties to a contract escape from their difficulties by specifying sovereigns. The security and certainty of this coin have given solid support for all transactions of credit, all over the earth, which are normally made in terms of that coin, and have enabled Englishmen to create institutions of credit embracing the globe, and economizing capital to the utmost, from the unshakable security of the terms of the contracts.

These advantages of the single gold standard are, undoubtedly, not such as strike at once the attention of men unaccustomed to affairs, and if the testimony of bankers, merchants, and economists who are familiar with them is to be thrown aside as unworthy of attention, then it may be impossible to make them understood, but they appeal to the enlightened judgment of dispassionate men, who will certainly see that, while the prices of our staples are set in gold in the world's market, every producer's interest is at stake in these great transactions of banking and credit, whether he knows it or not, and that the interests which would be sacrificed by abandoning the gold standard for the sake of trying a vulgar swindle on the currency are so enormous as to make that attempt, even if it were practicable, the height of folly.

FROM MY WINDOW.

BY SARAH K. BOLTON.

I SIT at my chamber window
This clear October day,
And a picture lies
Before my eyes
That can never fade away.

Afar in the purple distance
I see the ships go by,
On a belt of blue
Of the same bright hue
As the overbending sky.

There are lines of tall, dark poplars,
And a forest of red and gold,
And houses white,
In the glad sunlight,
Are scattered along the wold.

The patient cows are gleaning
From meadows which still are green,
And no jarring note
From the world remote
Disturbs the quiet scene.

Better than all the glitter
Of court or ducal crest,
To one who lives
Where nature gives
Her blessed peace and rest,

Is this picture from a window,
Which lasts when we are dead;
This lovely view
Of lake so blue,
And forest of gold and red.

THE TEMPERATE ZONE.

BY ALFRED J. HOUGH.

AS honies from the maples flow
Between extremes of heat and cold,
So wintry want nor fortune's glow
Call forth the best our natures hold.

WOMAN'S COUNCIL TABLE.

KATE FIELD.

BY LILIAN WHITING.

KATE FIELD'S life is not only rich in its lessons, as must always be a life occupied with great themes, but is also singularly fascinating in its romantic interest. She had the imaginative temperament of the born artist, combined with strong and clear intellectual force, a passionate devotion to truth, a loyalty to honor, and a greatness of view that is exceptional. As *artiste*, author, lecturer, and editor she won distinction; as the friend to those privileged to know her in the closer intimacy of mutual affection she was ideal—in her sincerity, her faithfulness, her noble and tender comprehension, and her boundless charity of thought. No words can even faintly suggest the infinite value of her personal friendship. I, who idolized her, and to whom

"The world's great space
Seems only but a vacant place"
without her beloved presence, must yet permit myself only this one reference to a phase of her character of which volumes might well be written.

Kate Field was born in St. Louis on October 1, 1840, and died in Honolulu, May 19, 1896, after two days' illness from pneumonia. So wonderfully had she retained the grace and vivacity of early youth, in her slender, girlish figure, her dainty loveliness of dress, and the enchantment that was always about her as an atmosphere, that her personality and her years of life had nothing in common. Practically, both in appearance and in her glow and

enthusiasm, she was still a young woman; but between these two dates lies a life of exquisite achievement and noble purpose.

Joseph M. and Eliza (Riddle) Field, both actors of distinction on the stage, early realized that in their only child, Kate, there was a spirit of rare promise. When she was about sixteen the gentle mother took the girl to Florence, Italy, placing her in charge of Miss Isa Blagden, the most intimate friend of Mrs. Browning. Here for several years Kate studied music and the languages, and the graceful, gifted girl became the idol of a choice circle, including the Brownings, George Eliot (who came to

Florence to make her studies for "Romola"), and Walter Savage Landor, who taught her Latin, and left her at his death a valuable portfolio of drawings. Under these happy influences the young girl drew in the inspirations that took their first form in literary production. To the *Atlantic Monthly* she contributed a series of papers on Mrs. Browning, Landor, Ristori, and other subjects in the



KATE FIELD.

range of criticism or biography. Vedder painted her portrait, as did later Henessy and F. D. Millet. As the years went on Kate Field became a brilliant figure in London and in Paris, where she was sought by the choicest society. She wrote two plays which were produced on the stage. She established a line of press correspondence that has rarely, if ever, been equaled in quality.

Early in the decade of 1880-90 Miss Field went West and became interested in the anomaly of Mormonism in the United States. She studied the situation carefully for a year, and returning to the East entered on that remarkable lecture campaign that stirred the country and effectually influenced legislation. On New Year's day of 1890 she issued the first number of her weekly review, *Kate Field's Washington*, which held a distinctive and unique place in American journalism until in April of 1895 ill health forced her to suspend its publication. As editor she effectually aided the cause of international copyright, and it is conceded that to her alone is due the removal of the tax on art. She not only championed free art in her paper, but appeared personally before Congress to plead the cause, and her eloquence and force triumphed. In recognition of this the French government conferred on her the supreme distinction of naming her an "officier de l'instruction publique," and decorated her with "palms of the Academy" in diamonds and gold.

As early as 1891 Miss Field began to discuss the Hawaiian problem. When in 1895 ill health demanded rest and change, Hon. H. H. Kohlsaatt, the brilliant editor of the *Times-Herald* of Chicago, commissioned her to go to Hawaii to observe and record the situation. Mr. Kohlsaatt had always held the opinion that Hawaii should be annexed and under the protection of this country. To carry out his ideas, and to give Miss Field the rest she so needed, he gave her this important position, and on November 14 of last year Miss Field sailed on that voyage from which she was never to return. In this she was doing some of the most notable work of her life. She had ingratiated herself with the natives and gained the confidence of the authorities. Her writings were judiciously handled and when she spoke of the government of the country her letters were read in Cabinet meetings before they were mailed. The authorities recognized in her a worker for the good of the country.

Miss Field adopted the most thorough

methods of work—those of personal observation and intercourse. In a letter dated December 16, 1895, she writes to me:

"The situation here is extremely interesting and I hope to do some good. . . . No mail to the United States for twenty days. It is awful. If Congress does not give these islands a cable the people will eat each other up, for lack of other excitement. If you can stir up any interest among the papers on this matter please do. A cable is now being proposed and is before Congress."

On the lyceum platform of America Kate Field held a distinctive place. Her personal grace, her vibrant, exquisitely undulated voice, conversational in tone, yet easily filling any hall, her charm of manner, and the magnetic interest with which she was able to invest any subject gave her a peculiar prestige. Her lectures presented her subjects with invincible logic, graphic picturing, and thrilling power, and united with these was her splendor of eloquence and her force of honest conviction.

Miss Field was a very fine critic of art and her judgment of painting and sculpture was always entitled to authoritative consideration. Art was, indeed, her specialty, although of late years she has been more identified with politics and affairs.

Her love of justice to the colored race was seen not only in her vigilance for preserving the tomb of John Brown, but as a girl of eighteen, when the war broke out, her devotion to the ideal right cost her a large inheritance. Her uncle, Milton H. Sanford, a Newport millionaire, regarded her as his heiress. His sympathies were with the South, and when the brilliant, ardent girl threw herself with intense zeal into the conflict, writing for the press, espousing the cause of freedom for the slave, her uncle canceled his intentions of leaving her a fortune. Never did Kate Field regret this, and even in this one instance lies the keynote to her character. She kept faith with her ideals. What higher tribute could one pay her?

A woman of great gifts; of genius lofty and noble in its character; sensitive to a fault, yet brave to the utmost verge of human endurance; intense in energy—she lived and died a heroine.

In Hawaii she had made hosts of devoted friends and the wonderful outpouring of love and gratitude to her when her sudden death so touched every heart was impressive. The flower-laden casket, draped with the stars and stripes—fit emblem for one with whom patriotism was a passion—was borne with almost royal honors to the vault of a friend, followed by the representatives of the government and by foreign potentates. Among the local press tributes to her was this: "She will be immortal in our hearts."

Once in writing of Mrs. Browning Miss Field said: "I speak not of religion, for with her everything was religion." The assertion is equally true of Kate Field. She believed in God and immortality and in the communion of the unseen; in the

fatherhood of God and in the brotherhood of man. All her life has been a quest. Always did she fare forth on new expeditions in search of light and truth.

Sweet to her is the entrance upon the "life more abundant." Of her we can only say—

"Not for the poor prize of an earthly goal
That strong uplift of soul."

Gifted, lovely, beautiful in every relation of life, Kate Field passed away in a foreign land far from her nearest friends; but loving ministry was about her, and the look of ineffable joy that came over the sweet face at the last brings to our hearts the fulfilled promise of the lines:

"And with the dawn those angel faces smile
That I have loved long since and lost awhile."

LIFE IN A HIGHLAND SHOOTING BOX.

BY MRS. M. A. WADDELL RODGER.

NEXT to his home and his rights the Englishman holds dearest his dog and gun. The national fondness for hunting and shooting have become proverbial. The Egyptian question may rear its grim and sphinx-like front in the Halls of Westminster, the abolition of the Lords may be imminent, but none of these, not even the awful and omnipresent "Deceased Wife's Sister Bill" can keep in town the fortunate Briton who owns a shooting box, or has a friend who owns a shooting box.

Do not picture this euphoniously named residence, situated among the hills, as a tiny box, six by ten, in which the patient huntsman sits waiting for the whir of partridge wings. Imagine instead an artistic modern dwelling, with nineteenth century improvements, or possibly an old farmhouse with bay windows and wings added.

It was my good fortune one summer to spend a few weeks in a Highland shooting box of the latter description. The rambling old stone house in which we stayed stood in a narrow green valley, which lay between two heathery hills. In front of the

house rippled over the pebbles and mosses one of those clear little "burns" for which Scotland is noted, with here and there deeper depths in which the fish play with as much delight as do the "bairns" in its shallows.

For many miles this valley, with its singing rivulet, winds in and out among the mountains. A delicate purplish haze hangs over it which constitutes the charm of the vistas among the Scottish hills.

Not hidden, but veiled as a bride, stands Ben Nevis in the distance. Around the nearer hills, high upon their precipitous sides, wind foot-paths, used only by the sheep and their shepherds.

In the rear of the shooting box stands a row of small, unpainted wooden shanties, which serve as dormitories for the "gillies" and male servants of the establishment. For my host takes with him his retinue of ten or twelve servants. Being a wealthy member of Parliament he has invited several friends to accompany him, so there is a congenial and merry party of ladies, gentlemen, and half-grown children.

When the days are fine, as they usually

are in August and September, the gentlemen, immediately after breakfast, start for the heathery moors accompanied by the "gillies," whose duty it is to carry the game bags and "start up" the game. The ladies spend the forenoon in writing letters, sketching, and embroidering. Frequently at noon the ladies and children walk out to meet the gentlemen, in some picturesque spot, and there have a picnic, which would be perfect but for the accompaniments, in swallow-tailed coats and white cravats, known as butler and footman. These solemnly stalk around the festal damask and are as agreeable as the death's-head at an Egyptian feast. After lunch the party spends the afternoon in talking politics, telling stories, etc., until the pony phaëtons arrive to take them driving. About five o'clock they reach home and find that it is time to dress for six o'clock dinner. This is the event of the day. At dinner, and only at dinner, does the British matron of good taste, while in the mountains or at the seashore, display her silks and jewelry. To wear for morning shopping or on the street, bracelets, necklaces, and showy watch chains is considered *outré* and stamps the wearer as a shoddy person. But at home or abroad, evening dinner allows the fullest liberty in this respect.

After dinner, which lasts from one to two hours, the ladies withdraw to the drawing-room; the gentlemen follow after drinking their wine. About nine o'clock the butler and footmen appear bearing trays with tiny cups of tea and coffee and sweet crackers.

Occasionally an evening was given to private theatricals or to a literary entertainment gotten up by the children. One fourteen-year-old damsel recited without mistake "The Lady of the Lake" and received for it \$15.00. The gentlemen would offer the children prizes for the best essay and the competition was both keen and amusing.

As interesting as this upper stratum and its doings was that of the lower. Here opportunity offered itself to study two distinct types of Scottish character: one, smooth, oily, servile, and inquisitive; the

other, strong, intelligent, independent, reserved, and full of self-respect. The first type was represented in "auld Jennet," who "tuk care o' the big hoose when the gentry was awa." Jennet, in her "linsey goon," white mutch, and apron, made believe that she had but one aim in life and that was to serve her employers; but a close observer who saw the continual simper and heard the ever-flattering word to her employers remarked, "That's a selfish, deceitful auld body," and so it proved.

The embodiment of the second type was seen in a gillie and his sister, who lived in a three-roomed cottage near by. This gillie, a kind of shepherd and general factotum, took charge of the stock and out-buildings during his employer's absence. He was a tall, broad-shouldered Scotchman who in kilt and plaid, with frank blue eyes and tawny beard, looked every inch a Highland chieftain. His sister, in physical proportions, could almost match his six feet two. Their reserve and lack of demonstration were truly Scottish. I happened to be present when their brother, a theological student and the pride of the family, came home from Aberdeen. His sister had not seen him for a year, and instead of rushing into his arms and welcoming him with kisses she reached out her hand and giving his a vigorous shake said, "How's a' wi' ye?"

Her love for and pride in him were limitless, yet both would have blushed and been half ashamed had either one offered any osculatory demonstration. It made credible the story of the good deacon, who after being long engaged to a bonnie Scotch lassie at last summoned courage enough to say, "Noo Jennie, dinna ye think I might hae a kiss?" Jennie assented and the deacon said, "But we maun first ask a blessin." That being done and the kiss given he remarked, "Ah, Jennie, but that was unco guid and noo we maun return thanks."

The cottage in which the brother and sister met was a simple little place. The kitchen which served for dining and living-room had a stone floor, which like most of the kitchen stone floors of England and Scotland was swept daily and sprinkled

with yellow sand. The sister's bedroom "ben a hoose" was also the parlor; it was destitute of carpet, but the boards were almost covered with soft gray deerskins, the owners of which had been shot on the heathery moorlands. Yet, though there was little furnishing and that of the simplest, on the table lay the Bible, Shakespeare, Scott, Burns, some theological works,

and those of the world-beloved Longfellow. These peasant folks had good company on the long winter evenings.

Seven miles distant from this simple home is Balmoral Castle, on the "bonnie banks o' the Dee," and on the hill-top stands the simple little Crathie church at which Victoria and her suite attend service when at Balmoral.

OLD MADEMOISELLE VAROT: A CHARACTER SKETCH.

BY MARGARET CARY PRATT.

THERE were two Mesdemoiselles Varot at Pensionnât Varot. First there was Mademoiselle Herminie Varot, called by every one simply "Mademoiselle." She was the head mistress of the school. Then there was old Mademoiselle Varot, a great aunt who made her home there. It is of her I have been thinking to-night.

She was already old then—oh so old!—so very old that none of the girls could possibly believe that any one of them could ever live to be as old as old Mademoiselle Varot.

I can see her now teetering along, cane in hand, over the slippery hall floor. I can see her bent back with the shoulders so rounded forward that they seemed to be trying to meet in front. I can see the trembling limbs, the parchment-like skin covered all over with the finest tracery, the high Roman nose, the advancing chin, the bright gray eyes with a distinct circle of white around the iris, the scanty white locks (were those forlorn little wisps ever called love-locks?) peeping out from under the large cap, the small square of black and white plaid pinned cornerwise about the shoulders, the gray yarn wristers, and the soft black felt slippers. Every detail of the little bent figure comes back to me vividly as I hold in my hand the letter which says that she is dead.

How many times have I stopped in the corridor to laugh noiselessly at the sight of Mademoiselle Varot mounting the slippery

staircase with a little teetering motion, holding onto the railing with one hand, lifting her dress with the other, and chanting a little tuneless refrain with no other words than "too, too, too" or "do, do, do," while closely behind her followed two or three young wretches with the dancing eyes and rosy cheeks of the Swiss schoolgirl of sixteen, each little rascal railing in hand, back curved, skirt elevated, teetering along chanting "too, too, too," etc., the procession mounting upward for two flights.

Indeed it was with strangely mingled feelings of reverence and amusement that we all regarded Mademoiselle Varot. However much fun might be had at her expense, I feel sure that any girl who had shown the least rudeness in addressing her would have immediately been set down as "*mal élevé*" and "*sans éducation*" and would have been snubbed accordingly.

I know that we all loved Mademoiselle—not devotedly, not passionately, to be sure, as the German girls adored their favorite mesdemoiselles—still she had become so much a part of our everyday life that we should hardly have known how to get along without her.

It was she who enlivened the schoolroom stormy afternoons. Some of the girls were usually at the long common study-table copying notes, while others were writing letters and still others, curled up in the corners of the high, old-fashioned sofas, were embroidering on linen or deep in a book

When old Mademoiselle came in there

would be first a stirring about to find her tabouret. That being unearthed from the regions beneath the long table she would place her feet upon the queer-shaped high footstool, plant herself as squarely as possible against the straight back of a favorite chair, produce from a hand-bag a partly knit stocking, and surveying her nearest neighbors with a sharp air of interest she would propound the almost invariable question: "*Eh bien, qu' ont fait ces jeunes beautées aujourd'hui?*"

Whether it was the title of "young beauties" which won us or the look of kindly interest, I cannot tell, but I know that before the afternoon was over nearly every one of the girls had been ensconced in turn beside the tabouret, had confided her little schemes for Christmas shopping, or translated interesting bits of letters from England or America, describing the dear home life (which often made the tears come), or asked for suggestions on her last composition, and got them, or even boldly read it for correction and got that too, so that it appeared marvelously well written when handed in.

Every now and again quaint sayings would drop from Mademoiselle's lips and droll little anecdotes, all very much of the old school, and little bits of verse, some of which remain with me to this day. One rhymed proverb will never slip my mind I feel sure:

*"La jeunesse qui veille et la vieillesse qui dort
Sont tous les deux près de la mort."*

And then on sunny mornings in the garden it made a pleasant variety to meet the little shawled figure trotting along on the gravel walks, hovering about the hen-house, calling to the little chickens to come and get the corn she would throw them. The little tuneless refrain then became: "*Venez mes poulets, venez mes poulets.*"

This was the soft side of Mademoiselle Varot. There was a stern side too—terrible to behold at half past ten at night. Then woe betide the unwary maidens who kept a light after hours and made merry over those convulsing nothings which are the especial delight of sweet sixteen. More than once,

alas! have I been among the number to see a little figure standing on the threshold thumping fiercely with a cane, while from somewhere within innumerable wrappings and from under a turban which looked as though it might be composed of Turkish towels issued a shrill little voice commanding: "*Moins bruit, mes jeunes beautées!*"

This time the young beauties knew just what to expect: Mademoiselle would be informed of everything by breakfast time and would read a long moral lecture before lessons, not to speak of enforcing the fines for English for some time with unwonted rigor.

The room from which old Mademoiselle emerged for such nocturnal visitations was for the larger number of the girls a profoundly mysterious apartment. They felt for it a reverence not unmixed with awe. There was, of course, a heavily draped antique bedstead in it; there were dark oak wardrobes and chests, odd little cupboards, and tables with fluted legs and tiny drawers. There was not much light permitted to enter this room and it was rumored that it was only swept and dusted semi-annually lest some of the old knickknacks should be displaced or injured. It is true that I never chanced to see cleaning going on there, and its stuffiness and closeness betrayed how seldom it received an airing.

I happened to enter it finally by chance. One of the English girls lay very ill. She had been in the habit of reading aloud to Mademoiselle Varot every afternoon for an hour. I hardly dared suggest myself as a substitute. I did so, however, with much hesitation and, wonder of wonders, was accepted.

What a musty old-time smell the room had! I felt almost as though I were reading to a veritable witch in her cavern—and yet the sharp gray eyes had a friendly twinkle in them, and when some tiny cakes of tinsel-wrapped *chocolât menier* were produced from one of the little drawers to assist me in my labors all feeling of uncanniness disappeared.

The book I read from was a detailed biography of Albert, prince consort—a work

by some Frenchman, a Royalist to the core. Mademoiselle Varot rarely laughed. If I remember rightly there was very little humor in the book. I knew her once to weep quite copiously at the bitter thought that Prince Albert during a time of imprisonment was obliged to black his own boots. Could one imagine any greater degradation? "*Le pauvre cher prince!*"

We continued our reading for some time—through the larger part of a month, I should think—and each day brought me a little nearer to old Mademoiselle. Alive as she was to the interests of others, Mademoiselle Varot was not in the habit of prattling of herself or her own affairs, and I have reason to think that a rare privilege was accorded me before the time of my service was over.

The window was actually open halfway and the shade drawn up one glorious April morning so that I could look down as I sat beside it into the large hedge-bound garden. The faint scent of white lilacs reached me as I rested with the book open on my knees and allowed myself to watch old Mademoiselle for a moment. She was drinking in the light and perfume too and her eyes had a far-away look.

Suddenly she noticed that I was no longer reading, but instead of asking, as I had expected, why I had stopped she leaned forward, and taking my left hand in one of hers carefully scrutinized the ring I wore on my third finger. "I have often noticed this," she said. "A young girl with us would not be permitted to wear such a valuable ornament. In America it is different. You are all little ladies."

The ring was a perfectly simple band of gold set with a small ruby. Her tone, though not hard, implied disapproval.

"It was my mother's," I replied, with tears in my eyes.

"Forgive me, dear child," said she. "I have hurt you. The good God knows I would not willingly have done it. He knows how dear such a thing may become to one."

And then in a burst of confidence and as if to atone for what she had said she pulled

out a drawer near at hand which I had never seen her open before. "See," said she, "here are the only two objects in the world which I value. The one will remain with my niece after I am gone; the other will be buried in my hand."

The first was a tiny gold-clasped *Évangile* which had been given to her mother at the time of her marriage, she said. The second was an oval miniature of a young man. In the hurried glimpse I got of it I saw that it was a handsome face full of fire and energy. Old Mademoiselle held it almost jealously in the hollow of her hand for only a few seconds and then replaced it in the drawer murmuring, "Maurice! Maurice!" I felt a whole tragedy was implied in the one name repeated and did not venture to even look inquiringly at her. Our reading was soon resumed.

It was in this same room that Mademoiselle took her weekly "*leçon de religion.*" On the morning of the solemn day her countenance took on a solemn and preoccupied expression and she went sighing about the house and neglected the *poulets* shockingly. At an early hour in the afternoon Monsieur Parchemin, the *curé* of the neighborhood, appeared, fat and sleek, with hands as white as a woman's, which he rubbed frequently together, and with thin lips set in a benevolent smile. They said he was a saint and I do not doubt he was a very good man. However that might be Mademoiselle Varot seemed to derive through him the true consolations of religion. She always came out cheerful and alert after being closeted for an hour with the worthy man.

And so all that vivacity, that cheerfulness, that piety has gone out of the world! I had always thought I should come back some day quite a young lady to visit the school and that Mademoiselle Varot would still be teetering up the stairs, trotting about in the halls, knitting in the school-room, calling the little chickens, fingering Maurice's miniature and the little Testament, or sighing in the garden in preparation for the *leçon de religion*. Yet this letter says that she is dead!

DRESS AS A RACE CHARACTERISTIC.

BY VIRGINIA R. COXE.

HUMAN beings who clothe themselves may be classed in two great divisions—the European nations, whom we may call white people, and from whom we ourselves mostly spring, and that great majority of mankind whom we may designate as brown people. As for the third division—the blacks—they can hardly come within our subject, since in a natural condition they can scarcely be said to clothe themselves at all, and when thrown with other races they simply adopt the costumes of their neighbors.

The costumes of the two great divisions of mankind above mentioned differ in at least three fundamental particulars—in the purpose of dress, in the simplicity of its shape, and in the permanence of its fashion.

Among European nations the motive of dress seems to me to be the displaying of the person to the best advantage. The object of the brown races, on the contrary, is to display the dress. We wish to show off ourselves; they to show off their clothes. No question of morality or modesty enters into this distinction. It is merely a race distinction, and there is the end of it. It is the custom of our race to frankly and fearlessly display personal beauty, and always was, from the earliest days of which we have any literary or pictorial record. In fact in earlier days this display was vastly franker than at present. Not to look back so far as to Pompeian supper parties, it is only a few centuries ago that titled beauties of the French court sat to Venetian masters for their portraits, quite undraped from the waist upward. Compared with this costume of the goddesses, the modern English and French full dress strikes one as decidedly puritanical.

But the brown races are very different people from us. We are realists; we want facts. The orientals are dreamers. Thousands of years ago they collected and

digested all the facts of life that had any interest for them. Ages ago their knowledge was crystalized and their life conventionalized, and to-day they live in their imagination.

But this man and all his like love color and beauty of texture and design. We with our coarse perceptions have no conception of the necessity of such things to these people. Color and harmony intoxicate them like perfume. The angry glare of the gorgeous scarlet and gold of an Indian rajah's retinue, the gem-like glitter of Persian and Chinese draperies, the cunning workmanship and miraculous harmony of the costume of the Japanese noble, are just as important elements of their government as elephants and horses and swordsmen; and woe to them in the day when they lay them aside! The eyes of these people must be fed first of all.

Another thing: these brown races, in spite of their imagination, or, perhaps, because of their imagination, have a terribly logical way of looking at things, and it follows that they have a great respect for wealth. A rich man is as good as the king, and the fisherman who finds a treasure may marry the sultan's daughter. Wealth is really the only distinction, and above all things they desire and respect it. So that it follows that, from their love of the mysterious and the unknown, they shroud their women in flowing and voluminous draperies, and in their love of beautiful things and, above all, of wealth they all make their dress rich and ornamental in itself—all, men as well as women; for in the East there is no such distinction in the habits of the sexes as there is with us of this generation, in which the men go soberly and comfortably clad and leave silks and jewels and feathers to their wives and daughters.

But since the principal intention of oriental costumes is the display of fabrics

and workmanship, it results that garments of the simplest form are perfectly adequate to effect this. Whereas a garment which is intended, as with us, to display the lines of the person, to effect which result the flat cloth we employ must be made to follow and cling to the various curves of the body, requires a most complicated treatment and cut. Any amateur dressmaker will confess that she never made a garment in the shaping of which there was not some moment of despair, when it seemed as if the obstinate thing would wrinkle somewhere.

This brings us to the second distinction between the two great types of costume, that which regards the simplicity of the cut.

Take a piece of cloth, or a blanket, three yards and a half long. Fold the two ends over, so that they meet in the middle of the piece. Sew them together. Sew up one selvage so as to form the whole into a bag. Cut in the middle of this edge a hole for the neck, and slit down the two side folds a little way to make armholes, and you have an Arab *haik*. The extra width of this garment, hanging loosely over the shoulders, answers the purpose of sleeves. A Mexican poncho, caught together at the sides, would give you much the same form.

Take your piece of cloth, double it lengthwise, cut in the middle of the fold a place for the neck, sew up the sides to the armholes, add two very wide, square-cut sleeves, hollow it slightly under the arms, and you have an Arab chemise, a Chinese jacket, an ancient Egyptian shirt—in short almost any oriental body-garment.

Take a half circle of cloth ten feet long; sew to the middle of the straight edge a square hood, catch the front together with a few inches of needlework, and you have the famous Arab burnoose, the most elegant, dignified, and comfortable garment ever invented.

When we come to the Moorish trousers, male or female, we find them to be simply a bag, two or three yards long, closed at the ends and open on one side. The holes at the opposite corners allow for the passage of the feet, and a betasseled cord running

through the hem of the open side gathers the whole about the waist. Not the most miraculous trousers of a crack London tailor will ever console the man who has once worn this comfortable garment, I am told.

The sash, the turban, and the street wrapper of eastern women are merely long straight pieces of cloth, variously wound, twisted, and folded. The only notable garment, in any way shaped, is the Moorish short jacket, as worn by both women and men. This is cut very easy at the insertion of the sleeves, so as to allow entire freedom of movement in all directions, and in no way confines the person, since it always hangs straight from the armpits down. The Turks, Persians, and Hindoos often wear coats long or short and shaped to the figure, which seems to me only another proof of the great proportion of white blood which those races have.

Thus it has been sufficiently shown that oriental costumes are shaped in the simplest and loosest manner, and with no attempt whatever to make them cling to the person; nor is any definition of the person necessary to these astute observers. Mrs. Browning tells us that "the artist's eye sees us, as God sees, in the nude," and every oriental is born with a share of the artistic instinct. In the "Thousand and One Nights" we read of an Arab gentleman who fell in love with a lady from seeing her hand and wrist at a window, and employed a dozen devices to discover and marry her, in which laudable effort he succeeded, praise be to Allah! No amount of neck and arms would have increased the fervor of this natural anatomist.

The dress of the Chinese mandarin is little more than a *haik* with loose sleeves, and that of the Japanese nobleman a loose wrapper fastened with a sash, its chief peculiarity being the enormous square cuff pendant from the sleeve, added evidently to make room for more embroidery.

The assertion that our own costume is intended to display the figure needs no other demonstration than the pains we take with its elaborate curves and many seams. The mere existence of close-fitting garments is

enough to prove it, and however far back you go in the history of European dress you find the same evident intention.

In European dress there has always been this curious distinction, that, whereas the female costumes have usually followed the shape to about the waist line, the male costumes have at most periods had a tendency to clothe the body in ample, or even loose garments, while the lower limbs are frequently cased in the tightest of hose, beginning either at the waist or about the hip joints. Even to this day the men have an occasional visitation of tight trousers, wherewith to display their manly calves.

There is one serious defect in the white woman's theory of dress, which is, that the whole system of it depends upon her having a waist. If the whole costume is to be divided at or about the waist, then a reasonably small waist is a necessity. Either our idea of costume is wrong, or the human figure is wrong, and you may take hold of the dilemma at either end you prefer; if you put the Venus of Milo into one of our dresses she will look a ridiculous fright, and we all know it.

Small waists have the very highest antiquity. The ancient Egyptian women had extraordinarily slender waists, if there is any truth in their pictures, their statues, or even their wooden dolls, of which we have specimens. These little waists, combined with the fine lines of the figure, make quite an ideal modern shape, and would have a great success in ballroom or even ballet costume. Whether these ancient small waists were given by nature or by lacing we do not know. If by the latter, they were quite unnecessary, since the costume was a mere sleeveless *haik* fastened with a sash, with an under petticoat apron hung from one shoulder.

In the meantime, we all know that tight lacing would in time destroy our digestion, ruin our nervous system, and give us all manner of diseases, if the ranks of our changeable society were not occasionally recruited from classes whose daily occupations

do not encourage them to wear corsets. Since there must be martyrs to every art, even to the art of fitting-dresses, let us be thankful that the law of the survival of the fittest over those who are fitted steps in to save the race.

It remains for us to consider the most curious phenomenon in the whole science of costume—that which we call fashion. The facts of fashion and style have always appeared utterly mysterious. Of course we all understand the machinery of trade by which the thing is kept going, but the origin and utility of it are wonderful and obscure. Why should a comfortable, serviceable, and handsome thing go out of use? What is there within us which requires us to be continually tickled with a succession of new forms which cannot, in the nature of things, be equally well adapted to our needs?

This is, above all things, a race characteristic. Brown races of mankind do not, as a rule, change their fashion of dress, or, if they do, it is once in a thousand years or so. One of the last innovations of this sort was when the Barbary tribes adopted a jacket worn by Charlemagne's troops, which these innovators continue to wear to this day. In Bulgaria, which is in that border land where race distinctions begin to mingle, the gala dresses of the rich classes are handed down from father to son. To be sure they are magnificent, and cost from a thousand dollars up to any sum you choose; but then, some Paris dresses, which fashion allows you to wear only a few times, cost about as much.

Oriental nations, according to the testimony of some six thousand years, more or less, when they find what they want adopt it and keep it, and have the good sense to know that it suits them. If it happens that it is not only convenient, but that, from its very simplicity, it makes fine lines and forms and is therefore beautiful, so much the better, and their tastes are gratified as well as their intelligence. On the contrary, when we find something that suits us we immediately look for something else.

EDITOR'S OUTLOOK.

AN ORIENTAL STATESMAN AMONG US.

THE visit of Li Hung Chang to the United States is one of those extraordinary events which no one could have predicted thirty-five years ago. It was not till 1860 that France and England, by the capture of Peking, forced from China treaties which practically opened that vast domain to Europe after a quarter of a century of conflicts. In 1888 our exports to China were only \$3,000,000. The Chinese never received any Americans with cordiality until General Grant visited them in 1877. The visit is at last returned by the most eminent statesman of "the Flowery Kingdom." General Grant declared that Li Hung Chang was one of the three or four great statesmen of the world. Between these two silent men a strong attachment was formed—perhaps because each realized that the other could hold his tongue.

Among the first of his duties here the oriental guest placed a visit to the tomb of Grant. He made that visit impressive by his religious silence and the reverential awe with which he placed a garland on the grave of his dead friend. A glimpse into Chinese habits of thinking and feeling is given by this touching scene: their personal attachments are strong; they worship their dead. An instance like this lifts their heathenism into a beautiful light.

The precise meaning of his journey round the globe Li Hung Chang will not disclose. He will see and hear everything without seeming to see or hear. He will give little and get much in the way of information. Perhaps it is only a personal tour like that of General Grant; perhaps there are many things about us which he wishes to learn for the use of his country. China is at the parting of the ways. A war with Japan has humbled her to defeat. Russia follows the Japanese victory into the ancient domain of the Chinese emperors. If China is to survive some new paths must be trodden by

her rulers. It may well be that the exigency has sent the greatest of oriental statesmen on his travels to learn in Paris, London, and Washington what he could not learn in Peking—the real facts about western civilization and the real friends of his people.

The visit punctuates some sentences of current history, we may be sure, even though the precise nature of Li Hung's search is unknown. It is an august event; there are four hundred millions of this man's countrymen and there are no tramps among them; they move round the globe in search of work but never an inch away from it. We have to reckon with these millions in the near future—on things of more moment than Chinese tea, rice, and opium. Their willing hands and imitative minds are seeking work. They will doubtless develop it at home and—as the Japanese are doing—sell us other things than the raw products of their fields.

The merchants and missionaries who have pushed the gates of China wide open have set for our civilization problems of which they did not dream. The presence of this oriental statesman among us is an announcement that the far East has accepted our invitation to fellowship and is preparing to march to prosperity on the lines we have traveled—to be rivals in production and commerce. They are in no haste, but the twentieth century will present to us and our children an oriental problem which may perplex and alarm us.

THE BICYCLE DULY CONSIDERED.

WHAT at first promised no more than a passing challenge to curiosity has, in the case of the bicycle, probably added a permanent force to civilization. Like all mere physical increments, this new machine is about evenly adapted to good and evil purposes. To the good, it has been said, all things are blessings, and to the bad an an-

gel's wings can afford infinite opportunity for doing wrong. The bicycle may well be spied upon as somewhat treacherous and deceitful. Rightly managed it is an efficient and trustworthy thrall; but give it an inch and it will take all that is left.

If the business left undone, or but hastily and imperfectly done, on account of the magic wheel, could be set forth in the cold statistics of the current year it would amaze the economist. On the other hand the sum of delights dashed into life by that same wheel would make a glowing treasure beyond the computation of the most expert accountant. From all over the civilized world comes the fine cry in favor of it, and we cannot refuse to consider the bicycle's claims to philosophical attention.

Up to the present time, no matter what may be the future changes, the chief claim of the bicycle upon our consideration is its utility as a means of rational and wholesome pastime and pleasurable recreation. While it is put to many uses purely economical in a business sense, still the balance is overwhelming on the side of mere amusement.

Nor is this to be reckoned against it in our calculation. We Americans especially need to have play forced upon us; we are too much given over to constant money-grubbing and the feverish pursuit of sordid ambitions. There is small danger that we will fall too far in the direction of recreation and healthful pastime. Certainly the bicycle is a delightful source of emotion; it sends up through the rider an exhilaration indescribably comforting to weary nerves—and just here arise both the pro and the con of our argument.

If to ride moderately is pleasing, to ride faster is charming, and to speed like the wind is intoxicating. The habit grows, the fascination gets deeper and deeper hold, until, like all other overdone sports or pastimes, it becomes an almost incurable mania. The incorrigible scorcher is already scarcely less a nuisance in our streets and roads than the drunkard and the professional beggar. He casts a malign shadow over the whole subject of wheeling and forces right-minded people to shrink from

public appearance on their wheels. The same or more may be said about a certain class of women and girls who for one reason or another choose to make bicycle riding an excuse for immodest and outlandish attire. Instead of honestly adapting costume neatly and becomingly to the needs of wheeling, they rush to the extreme suggested by a necessary change. Here a great question of public taste and morals forces itself into our minds, and it is not too early to give it serious attention.

Overexertion is very hurtful to organic life. Mere waste is healthful if natural and promptly compensated by recuperation. Bodily exercise cannot go beyond the limit of safety without permanent injury to vital centers. This well-known law is too frequently broken by bicycle riders, especially the young and strong ones who feel keenly the sweet exhilaration of rapid movement under circumstances novel and peculiarly fascinating. A rich crop of diseases is sure to be reaped by these reckless sowers.

Doubtless wisdom will control in the long run, wherefore it seems safe to take an optimistic view of the great wheeling epoch. Observation has led us to think that our young people are adapting themselves in the main with great good sense to the conditions imposed by their new means of enjoyment. It is comforting to the taste and a rare delight to the artistic perception to see them out of an evening, gliding along so silently and smoothly, skimming the roads as swallows skim the streams. Where there is so much fascination and so little urge toward evil surely the outcome must be good.

We bid the bicycle hearty welcome; we mount and ride away with a fresh breeze against our face, hoping that we may never be accused of reckless scorching or of any other breach of the high ethics of wheeling. Here is an unmixed blessing if we but give it due treatment. We have dreamed of flying; here is our dream come true. Brethren and sisters of the guild of bicyclers, we give you a warm hand-clasp and wish you all the joy of numberless rides over faultless roads in ever-glorious weather!

CURRENT HISTORY AND OPINION.*

LORD RUSSELL ON ARBITRATION.



LORD RUSSELL, OF KILLOWEN.
Lord Chief Justice of England.

THE nineteenth annual convention of the American Bar Association, which opened August 19 at Saratoga, N. Y., attracted special attention for its annual address delivered, on August 20, by Lord Russell, lord chief justice of England. His subject was "International Law," and his remarks favoring arbitration are considered of international importance. He advocated arbitration in certain cases on questions that do not usually lead to war. In the following cases, he said, "the matter is one which ought to be arbitrated: (1) wherever the right in dispute will be determined by the ascertainment of the true facts of the case; (2) where, the facts being ascertained, the right depends on the application of the proper principles of international law to the given facts, and (3) where the dispute is one which may properly be adopted on a give-and-take principle, with due provision for equitable compensation, as in cases of delimitation of territory and the like." He held that no self-respecting nation would arbitrate "on questions touching its national independence or affecting its honor." He also expressed no faith in the need of a

permanent court to settle international differences.

Pittsburg Commercial Gazette. (Pa.)

It is a scholarly, liberal plea for international peace and broader toleration of the people of all nations toward each other in their common progress to a higher plane of civilization.

The Poughkeepsie Eagle. (N. Y.)

The attendance of the lord chief justice of England upon a meeting of the association is in itself an event of no common import, but Lord Russell is himself a man whose personality is interesting. He is the first Irishman who ever held the office of chief justice.

The Providence Journal. (R. I.)

In regard to arbitration, he says that no nation can be expected to arbitrate the question of its own honor any more than the individual can be. In view of the fact that Secretary Olney is now trying to have the Venezuela question submitted

to a court of arbitration which shall include, among others, the lord chief justice of England, this opinion is a curiously suggestive one to come before us as that of Lord Chief Justice Russell.

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

The most notable point in that address, it seems to us, is Lord Russell's practical disapproval of the project for the establishment of a permanent tribunal of international arbitration.

The Denver Republican. (Col.)

He took the very sensible position that, although peace is to be desired, war is not the greatest evil in the world.

The Tribune. (Minneapolis, Minn.)

Lord Russell's address is, let us hope, a forerunner of that exalted condition of public sentiment which will look upon war as a barbarism that has no place in modern civilization.

THE LOUISIANA LYNCHINGS.

THE lynching at Hahnville, La., on August 8, of three Italians suspected of murder has greatly incensed Italy. Under instruction from his government, Baron Fava, Italian ambassador to the United States, hastily ended his vacation at Bar Harbor to seek an interview with the secretary of the State Department at Washington regarding the trouble. A telegram of August 11 from Baron Fava instructed the Italian consul at New Orleans to begin investigation of the lynching at once as a basis of a demand for indemnity.

* This department, together with the book "The Growth of the French Nation," constitutes a Special C. L. S. C. course, for the reading of which a seal is given.

The Times-Democrat. (New Orleans, La.)

A mob is not likely to search a murderer to discover whether he is a native or a foreigner, whether he has taken out his naturalization papers or not. It would be a strange condition of affairs if the mob could lynch natives with impunity, but dare not touch foreigners. Foreigners who come to this country must take the same risk with natives. When they settle west of the Mississippi they know that they take risks if they venture on certain crimes; and they know that assassination will be promptly followed by lynching. If they do not want to run those risks they will stay at home or not embark in the assassination business. . . . A foreigner is just as safe in this country as a native, and there is no reason why he should be more so.

Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

As suggested by President Harrison, the federal courts should be given jurisdiction for the punishment of offenses against the treaty rights of foreigners, particularly for the punishment of those who lynch them. The state courts in certain states are not efficient in bringing lynchers to justice. The federal courts are usually respected and feared, and if they had power to punish those who lynch aliens, whom we have obligated ourselves by treaties to

protect, the too prevalent crime of lynching might be restrained to a greater extent than it now is.

Boston Journal. (Mass.)

Italy's solicitude about the status of the three Italians who were lynched by a Louisiana mob the other day is perfectly natural. If the men had not abandoned allegiance to their native country, the claim for an indemnity will have to be admitted. It is a curious anomaly that the federal government has to shoulder the responsibility for this kind of thing, while it has no jurisdiction over the offenders.

The Times-Union. (Jacksonville, Fla.)

The law should be so changed as to give the federal courts jurisdiction in cases that involve international complications. We are not in sympathy with the encroachments of the federal government on the rights of the states, but where the government is responsible for the act of an individual it ought to have power over that individual to enforce his good behavior or to punish him for his crime.

The Kennebec Journal. (Augusta, Me.)

A few months ago we were very much worried lest our missionaries in China should be mobbed. On the whole we are not sure but that they are safer out there than they would be at home in some parts of this enlightened land.

SIR JOHN MILLAIS.



SIR JOHN MILLAIS.

THE career of another great promoter of culture is closed by the death of the renowned English artist and president of the Royal Academy, Sir John Millais. He died at his home in London on August 13, after long suffering from cancer of the throat. Of French extraction, John Everett Millais was born in Southampton, England, in 1829. When nine years old he began the study of art at Musass' Academy, and at this early age gained his first medal at the Society of Arts. Two years later he entered the Royal Academy. Here he won the chief awards for drawing. The first picture which he put on exhibition, "Pizarro Seizing the Inca of Peru," brought him into public favor. Attracted by Italian art while still in the Academy, Millais together with William Holman Hunt and Dante Gabriel Rossetti revolted against representing nature after "the antique" and began to paint it as it appeared to their own eyes. They soon gained a following of artists and constituted the "Pre-Raphaelite School," which revolutionized English art. As a Pre-Raphaelite Millais painted

"Our Savior" and "Ferdinand Lured by Ariel" in 1850, "Mariana in the Moated Grange" and the "Woodman's Daughter" in 1851, and the "Huguenot" and "Ophelia" in 1852. At this time Ruskin began to commend the new school in his writings and lectures. While at the height of his fame Millais fell in love with Mr. Ruskin's wife, and after she had been divorced he married her. The event ruined Ruskin's life and initiated the decline in Millais' art career. Henceforth, regardless of his high ideals, he chose to paint subjects that would bring in money, such as the portraits of wealthy persons. In 1853 he became an associate member of the Royal Academy and ten years later entered into full membership. In 1878 he was decorated with the ribbon of the Legion of Honor, in 1882 was elected a foreign associate of the Beaux Arts, and in 1885 was made a baronet by Gladstone's government. Last February Millais succeeded Lord Leighton as president of the Royal Academy.

The Chicago Record. (Ill.)

Millais stood eminent as an example of the school which he fostered and of which he was probably the last great exponent. He was thoroughly Royal Academic—a Tory in art. His conservatism showed itself in the essentially British character of his pictures of childhood, which had the broadly drawn sentiment and the aggressive prettiness which make appeal to the good, fat British matron and master. For all this, his skill both as a draughtsman and as a handler of the medium in which he worked is indisputable as his eminence

in his own peculiar field. He was great in his school and thoroughly representative of its traits. His death will be seriously felt among his fellow-countrymen, who have learned to regard him, very justly, as one of their most eminent and distinguished painters.

The Times. (Hartford, Conn.)

Probably he did work on a plane a little lower than he had first conceived, but it was probably that to which he was adapted. He did not leave his own grade, but found it, and it was high enough to satisfy all but the most exacting.

SECRETARY HOKE SMITH RESIGNS.



HOKE SMITH.
Ex-Secretary of the Interior.

The resignation from the Cabinet of Mr. Hoke Smith, secretary of the interior, which has been rumored since he took his stand by the Democratic convention at St. Louis, with its free silver principles, is now assured by the appointment of his successor. On August 24 President Cleveland announced ex-Gov. David Rowland Francis as the new secretary of the interior. He will enter upon his duties in this capacity on September 1. Mr. Francis was born in Richmond, Ky., October 1, 1850, of Scotch-Irish parents. He is a graduate of Washington University, in St. Louis, Mo. He always has been an active Democrat. That party elected him mayor of St. Louis in 1885 and governor of Missouri in 1888. During the last year he has aggressively opposed the free silver movement.

(Rep.) The Times-Herald. (Chicago, Ill.)

Its moving cause, so far as we have a right to judge, is sentimental, and originates in a pledge made last spring that he would abide the decision of the National Democratic Convention. He thinks that the keeping of his word is to be preferred to consistency of political principle. Secretary Smith has been an excellent officer, and there is no criticism to make upon the faithfulness with which he has discharged his duties.

(Ind.) The Providence Journal. (R. I.)

Mr. Smith entered the Cabinet a practically unknown man, but he has discharged the multifarious duties of the position with creditable, if not brilliant success, and he retires now in a perfectly open and honorable way.

(Rep.) The Chicago Tribune. (Ill.)

President Cleveland has proved himself stanchly and uncompromisingly for honest money, and it would be the height of incongruity for any man to remain a member of his Cabinet who was an active supporter of the Popocratic candidate.

(Dem.) The Pittsburg Post. (Pa.)

The fact of his resignation indicates the probability that President Cleveland will declare against the Chicago candidates and platform, although it makes no certainty. So far everything certifying or predicting his position has been merely guesswork.

(Ind.) Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

Mr. Smith's retirement is inevitable, but it will be regretted—as will also his narrow, partisan view of his duty, as it is said he is a free silver man less

from conviction than because he considers it to be his duty to support his party, whatever vagaries it may choose to adopt.



DAVID ROWLAND FRANCIS.
The New Secretary of the Interior.

NANSEN, THE ARCTIC EXPLORER.

THE glory of finding the north pole has not, as was reported last spring, been wrested from the future by the Norwegian, Dr. Fridtjof Nansen. His ship, the *Fram*, in which he embarked from Christiania on June 24, 1893, did not drift across the pole with the ice floes as he predicted, but only reached $85^{\circ} 57'$ north latitude, then proceeded to open sea, arriving at Skjervoc in August last. On March 14, 1895, Dr. Nansen and Lieutenant Johansen left the ship and took to the ice floes in two sledges with only twenty-eight dogs. Storms had prevented the *Fram's* stopping for more dogs. Yet the two men set out and on April 7, 1895, reached $86^{\circ} 14'$ north. Their dogs gave out and it was this which compelled them to return from their quest. They wintered at $81^{\circ} 13'$ north and 56° east. In the spring they met Jackson's expedition and returned on his supply steamer to Vardøe, Norway, on August 13, 1896. Though he did not find the pole Dr. Nansen lessened by almost one half the distance between that goal and the farthest north reached up to this time, $83^{\circ} 24'$; he discovered new land and achieved results invaluable to science. From the most northerly point reached no land was seen.

The Tribune. (Minneapolis, Minn.)

The arctic ice-pack is evidently too thick to be penetrated by a vessel, and the next venture should be by balloon.

The St. Louis Globe-Democrat. (Mo.)

In the course of time the pole may be reached. But of what value would such an achievement be, after all? It would not in any respect promote the interests of civilization. There are no chances of gain in those distant and forbidding fastnesses of snow and ice, no promises of new sources of prosperity and happiness.

The Times-Herald. (Chicago, Ill.)

Dr. Nansen has returned from the "farthest North," and if he has not brought his sheaves or his icebergs with him he has at least told a story which thrills one with pride in the race. He did not cross the pole, but he exceeded every one of his predecessors in arctic adventure, and he demonstrated to the world that his theory was not idle.

The Mail and Express. (New York, N. Y.)

The return of Dr. Nansen, the Swedish voyager, from his arctic expedition adds another count to the triumphs of polar exploration.

The Atlanta Constitution. (Ga.)

Though still unsolved, the polar mystery is not quite so intangible as it was before Nansen's expedition into the arctic region, and the information which he brings back with him from the frozen North will be of valuable service in the event of future explorations. It cannot be said that Nansen's expedition has been a foolish one.

Boston Journal. (Mass.)

Though the mystery remains unsolved, the efforts to solve it add constantly to the scope of human knowledge.

The Nashville American. (Tenn.)

The brief outline of his three years' life in the arctic seas furnished by Dr. Nansen but arouses interest and makes the reader wish for a fuller account.

MARY ABIGAIL DODGE ("GAIL HAMILTON").

THE brilliant writer and conversationalist, Miss Mary Abigail Dodge, best known to the public as "Gail Hamilton," died of paralysis on August 17 at Hamilton, Mass. She was born in 1830 at Hamilton, where she received her early education. At the age of twenty-one she entered the high school at Hartford, Conn., as teacher of physics. After several years she went to Washington, D. C., as governess in the family of Dr. Gamaliel Bailey. It was in his newspaper, *The National Era*, that she began her pen work. In 1862 her first book was published under the title "Country Living and Country Thinking," being largely a compilation of her newspaper articles. From 1865-67 she was one of the editors of a children's magazine in Boston and for about ten years she pursued her literary labors in that city. Since then she has divided her time between her native town and Washington, where she made her winter home with Mrs. James G. Blaine, who was her cousin. Here she gained an enviable reputation in diplomatic circles for her brilliant conversation. Some of her books are: "Gala Days," "A New Atmosphere," "Stumbling Blocks," "Skirmishes and Sketches," "Red-Letter Days in Applethorpe," "Summer Rest," "Wool Gathering," "Woman's Wrongs, a Counter-Irritant," "Battle of the Books," "Woman's Worth and Worthlessness," "Little Folk Life," "Child World," "Twelve Miles from a Lemon," "Nursery Noonings," "Sermons to the Clergy," "What Think Ye of Christ?" "Our Common School System," "Divine Guidance; Memorial of Allen W. Dodge," and "The Insuppressible Book." Most of these are collections of her fugitive articles which deal with politics and topics of current interest. Her one novel, "First Love is Best," had less success than her other works. In 1887 appeared her series of letters on civil serv-

ice, noted throughout the Union. During later years she has devoted herself to preparing a biography of James G. Blaine and in attempts to secure the release of Mrs. Maybrick, who was convicted by the English courts of killing her husband.

Baltimore American. (Md.)

Her style was vigorous and incisive, and her reasoning close and strong. Her mind was of the masculine rather than of the characteristically feminine type. . . . Some of her best work was in criticism of matters connected with the Garfield administration. Mr. Blaine derived not a little help from her as an adviser, and in the preparation of his work, "Twenty Years in Congress," Miss Hamilton was frequently consulted. Her published works on the common schools, civil service, and other matters, and her essays on a variety of topics have far more than a transient value.

The Kennebec Journal. (Augusta, Me.)

Miss Dodge wielded a singularly graceful pen. She combined rare beauty of diction with great mental clearness and vigor. She was an ardent champion of reforms she believed to be in the path of progress, a devoted and unselfish friend, and an untiring worker. She leaves behind her a noble life work that will be her best monument.

The Inter-Ocean. (Chicago, Ill.)

Gail Hamilton is one of the foremost writers of the time in the field of polemics and one of the most original of those whose mastery of good, strong English made them famous.

ENGLISH BOMBARDMENT IN ZANZIBAR.

THE principle conceded by all nations, that strictly political refugees need not be extradited like common law criminals, has been rejected by its strongest advocate, England, in the case of Saïd Kalid, usurper of the Zanzibar consulate. Upon the death of the sultan of Zanzibar, on August 25, Saïd Kalid with seven hundred *askeris* seized the palace and proclaimed himself sultan. Marines and soldiers from British warships lying in the harbor were immediately landed by order of the British consul, who warned Saïd Kalid to surrender to the English the next morning on pain of having the palace bombarded. Saïd Kalid was obdurate and, on August 27, the bombardment followed, resulting in the destruction of the palace. Saïd Kalid and his chief followers escaped to the German consulate. Hamond, a cousin of the late sultan, was then made his successor. On August 28 the usurper's surrender was requested by the English consul. This the German consul refused, but advices of August 30 from Berlin report that Saïd Kalid will be surrendered to the British on their guarantee that he shall be treated as a prince and prisoner of war. According to the same advices Germany will not acquiesce in Great Britain's plan to change the protectorate of Zanzibar into a crown colony.

The Denver Republican. (Col.)

It looks as though England would be checked in its desire to annex Zanzibar. It may be taken for granted that it would annex that country if it dared, but the fear that the French and Germans would object operates as a restraining influence. This suggests that England has reached the end of its rope as a conqueror of small and helpless countries. In the future it will have to regard the wishes of nations which in the past gave it almost a free hand.

The Philadelphia Inquirer. (Pa.)

When England assumed a protectorate over Zanzibar the slave trade was vigorously attacked, but it still exists in violation of treaty rights, and if a crusade is opened against the traffic now humanity and civilization will have gained something by this short revolution.

The Times-Herald. (Chicago, Ill.)

The government will be forced either further to aggravate the discontent at home with a cynical foreign policy by continuing the status of slavery or invite the hatred of the Zanzibaris and the possible jealousy of Germany by openly extending dominion over the territory.

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

The Berlin Conference of 1885 arranged the spheres of influence of Germany and Great Britain, respectively, in East Africa, and the agreement permitted the establishment of an English protectorate, several years later, over the sultanate of Zanzibar. Germany had no cause to complain of her end of the bargain, and she might not object to England's outright annexation of her portion of the spoils, because it would furnish an example and precedent for herself. France's assent to the British protectorate was purchased by England's to the French protectorate in Madagascar.

The Chicago Record. (Ill.)

The Zanzibar affair is a striking example of the ease with which territory is acquired from half-savage and ignorant potentates. The potentates, indeed, have very little to say about it. The enlightened European power simply steps in and asserts control, and the African has nothing to do but submit. In much the same fashion most of Africa has been grabbed and what little is left without definite boundary lines is sure to be seized before many more years have elapsed.

OFFICIAL NOTIFICATION OF THE CHICAGO CONVENTION NOMINEES.

ON the evening of August 12 Mr. William J. Bryan and Mr. Arthur J. Sewall, chosen by the Chicago Democratic National Convention for president and vice president respectively, were given official notification of their nomination, at Madison Square Garden, New York City. The formal speech of notification was delivered by Gov. Wm. J. Stone, of Missouri, chairman of the notification committee. Mr. Bryan replied at some length in an address which thoroughly indorsed the Chicago platform. Mr. Sewall made a brief speech of acceptance.

(*Dem.*) *The Pittsburg Post.* (Pa.)

The Democratic candidate showed consummate political shrewdness in making this great speech within hearing of Wall Street, and the masterly arguments he submits show his faith in the intelligence of the people and their capacity and will to choose the right. It will be the text-book—the Bible, as it were—of this wonderful campaign. It has the inspiration of truth, is pervaded with love of liberty and faith in the magnificent destinies of the American people.

(*Rep.*) *New York Tribune.* (N. Y.)

There are submitted no proofs of assertions which have been a thousand times challenged; they are simply repeated as if they were axioms. To follow Mr. Bryan in detail through this maze of sophistry is quite unnecessary. For through it all there run certain palpably false assumptions, which entirely

destroy the force of his reasoning. The first is that free coinage by the United States alone would raise the price of silver bullion throughout the world to \$1.29 in gold. Mr. Bryan offers not an item of evidence to sustain this assumption. The history of the world disproves it. But if it is true, it destroys absolutely all the force of three quarters of Mr. Bryan's speech, in which he attempts to show that various classes have been plundered by making gold too dear, and that a cheaper dollar, one of less purchasing power, is needed to restore the balance. The second assumption is that bimetalism is free coinage, whereas all practical men know that free coinage in this country alone is monometallism, for without agreement of other nations in fixing a ratio between silver and gold it would simply demonetize gold in this country, fix a premium on it, and compel the redemption of all notes in silver only.

FREDERIC NICHOLAS CROUCH.



FREDERIC NICHOLAS CROUCH.

ON August 18 at Portland, Me., death claimed the songwriter best known as the author of "Kathleen Mavourneen." Frederic William Nicholas Crouch was born in London, England, on July 31, 1808, blessed with a musical ancestry. At nine years of age he exercised his musical talent in the London Royal Cobourg Theater and at twelve won success as a violoncello soloist in His Majesty's Theater in London. He went to Scotland with a traveling troupe and then for a short time served as a sailor on coasting vessels. Returning to London, at the age of fourteen, he was admitted to the Royal Academy of Music entirely on his merit as a musician. Having graduated here, he was made violoncellist of the Drury Lane Theater orchestra. At this period of his career Mr. Crouch began to produce his songs, which now number about two thousand, and at the age of nineteen he composed his third song, "Kathleen Mavourneen." In 1849 he came to America to teach and lecture, dwelling in Portland, Me., Washington, D. C., and Richmond, Va., successively. He gave up his musical work to serve

in the Confederate Army with the Richmond Howitzers. At the close of the war he found his home and possessions in Richmond destroyed, and after struggling several years as a music teacher he went to reside in Portland again and then in Baltimore, Md. His talent for composition thrived unmarred by age, his most brilliant martial air being a recent production. Some of his most popular songs are "O'Donnell's Farewell," "The Emigrant's Lament," "Sing to Me, Nora," and "Dermot Asthore." Mr. Crouch was a founder of the Society of Science, Letters, and Art, also an honorary member of the Royal Society. His fourth wife survives him.

Baltimore American. (Md.)

Although Professor Crouch will not be known solely by this one song, it is almost certain to survive anything else that he wrote. He was born to be a musician. His life was a checkered one. Hardships on land and sea, struggles with poverty, with occasional glimpses only of the sunshine of prosperity, the terrible experiences of war, and many other sufferings, could not quench within him the desire to sing. . . . Professor Crouch's friends are numbered by the thousands in this city and all over the country. When his condition of distress became known a few months ago responses came from near and far. Warm, loving words accompanied the evidences of friendship.

The Mail and Express. (New York, N. Y.)

The sweet singer of a day that is past has left an impress for good upon his time that many a man in the higher walks of life would give years to secure.

The Chicago Record. (Ill.)

Were the whole mass of his other writings to be stacked up it could not make the author the reputation gained in the few bars of "Kathleen." It was a singular freak of destiny which made it possible for this man to show so pronounced a genius for catching the popular ear in one instance and kept him from ever repeating the performance. And by another singular freak of fate it brought him in not a cent. His life was one of disappointment, vicissitude, and defeat.

THE MASSACRE AT CONSTANTINOPLE.

PROSPECTS of peace among Cretan Christians are offset by renewed carnage among the Armenians. On August 26 armed Armenians seized the Ottoman Bank of Constantinople, holding its employees as hostages. They declared the demonstration to be directed against the powers who had deserted them and not against the bank, or the Turks, and demanded reforms, threatening to blow up the bank, all its valuables, and the captives unless these reforms were granted within three days. On August 28 the revolutionists in the bank surrendered on condition that they retain their weapons and be given safe passage out of the country. These terms were granted them. The next day the Armenian Revolutionary Committee issued another manifesto demanding autonomy for the Armenians. The Turks made the revolution a pretext for slaying about 4,000 persons, hunting Armenians through the streets, and killing all suspected of sympathizing with them. The houses of a number of foreigners were sacked, their owners fleeing to the boats in the harbor. According to dispatches from Washington, D. C., President Cleveland has ordered the warships *Bancroft* and *Cincinnati* to Turkey. They will reach the Bosphorus in October.

The Times-Herald. (Chicago, Ill.)

Perhaps it is hopeless to expect of Europe any forceful protest against the horrible practices of the Turk. What he has done to the Armenians has been done in lesser degree by England to Ireland, Russia to the Jews, Austria to Hungary, and by all in turn to the savage races of the earth wherever the latter occupied desirable territory.

The Philadelphia Record. (Pa.)

The cowardly Armenian agitators, who, well aware of the consequences of their "*coups de theatre*," deliberately expose their compatriots to Turkish vengeance merely to gratify their vaingloriousness and thirst for notoriety, are far more despicable than the Turks.

Harrisburg Telegram. (Pa.)

So long as the sultan is permitted to go on in his fiendish attacks upon the Armenians the effort to Christianize that part of the world will be futile.

The Mail and Express. (New York, N. Y.)

The perpetual problem of Turkey seems no nearer solution at this moment than at any previous time, notwithstanding the cabled statements predicting concerted action by the powers. It is said that Queen Victoria has brought pressure to bear on Emperor William, and that King Christian of I-Oct.

Denmark has used his influence with the czar, the family efforts in both cases resulting favorably to united action. . . . At the same time the German pretense of naval force in the Bosphorus is simply ridiculous, compared with the ships of other nations.

The Washington Post. (D. C.)

It may be that unpleasant possibilities exist as regards Turkey, and that a naval demonstration of some sort is on the cards. But it would be farcical to attempt that demonstration with the *Bancroft*. The sultan would grin more cynically than ever at the spectacle of that little cockleshell fuming and fussing about in the archipelago and making faces at forts capable of blowing her out of the water in three minutes.

The New York Post. (N. Y.)

This readiness of the Turkish government to make massacre the penalty of all sorts of sedition is difficult to comprehend if one does not remember that, by the Mussulman law, Christians live by sufferance under all Mussulman rule.

Ohio State Journal. (Columbus.)

The ordering of the practice ship *Bancroft* to Constantinople is believed to be the first step in the administration program to compel Turkey to re-

spect the peremptory demand for full and immediate satisfaction for \$100,000 indemnity made last fall for the destruction of the American college and other property at Harpoot and Marash. It is hoped President Cleveland will compel the sultan to pay the bill if it is necessary to detach every battleship and cruiser from the North Atlantic squadron of Admiral Bunce.

Boston Journal. (Mass.)

Now, as hitherto, the jealousies and dissensions of the Christian powers of Europe are accountable for the prolongation of Turkish misrule.

The Seattle Post-Intelligencer. (Wash.)

Perhaps the Armenians are at fault; that the Turks are guiltless no one will believe. The chief culprits, however, are the great powers of Europe. The story of the past two years proves that the Porte will do whatever the powers agree upon asking it to do.

The Advance. (Chicago, Ill.)

Of course the civilized world cannot help noting the contrast between the promptness with which the British warships bombarded the sultan's palace at Zanzibar and the inactivity at Constantinople.

THE NATIONAL CONVENTION OF GOLD DEMOCRATS.



SENATOR JOHN MCAULEY PALMER.
National Democratic Candidate for President.

The platform reaffirms the historic Democratic doctrine of tariff for revenue only and demands that "henceforth modern and liberal policies toward American shipping shall take the place of our imitation of the restricted statutes of the eighteenth century"; it opposes "the pretense that discriminating duties will promote shipping." The platform further states: "We insist upon the maintenance of the gold standard and of the parity therewith of every dollar issued by the government, and are firmly opposed to the free and unlimited coinage of silver and to the compulsory purchase of silver bullion. But we denounce also the further maintenance of the present costly patchwork system of national paper currency as a constant source of injury and peril. We assert the necessity of such intelligent currency reform as will confine the government to its legitimate functions, completely separated from the banking business, and afford to all sections of our country a uniform, safe, and elastic bank currency, under governmental supervision, measured in volume by the needs of business.

"The fidelity, patriotism, and courage with which President Cleveland has fulfilled his great public trust . . . are fully recognized by the Democratic party, and will secure to him a place in history beside the fathers of the republic. . . . The Supreme Court of the United States was wisely established by the framers of our Constitution as one of the three coördinate branches of the government. Its independence and authority to interpret the law of the land without fear or favor must be maintained. We

A two days' convention of sound money Democrats was opened on September 2 at Tomlinson Hall in Indianapolis, Ind., by Senator Palmer of Illinois, he being chairman of the Sound Money Democratic National Committee. Eight hundred and forty delegates were in attendance, representing forty-one states and three territories. Ex-Governor Roswell P. Flower of New York was made temporary chairman and Senator Donelson Caffery of Louisiana was given the permanent chairmanship of the convention. It was voted to effect a permanent national organization. On September 3 Senator John McAuley Palmer of Illinois was nominated for president of the United States, and Governor Simon Bolivar Buckner of Kentucky for vice president, both on the first ballot. Before adjourning the convention empowered its executive committee to proceed for the recognition of the ticket in states where the Australian ballot law or other laws would interfere with the recognition of more than one regular Democratic ticket. Both candidates were notified of their nomination in Louisville, Ky., on September 12.



GOVERNOR SIMON BOLIVAR BUCKNER.
National Democratic Candidate for Vice President.

condemn all efforts to degrade that tribunal or impair the confidence and respect which it has deservedly held. The Democratic party ever has maintained and ever will maintain the supremacy of law, the independence of its judicial administration, the inviolability of contract, and the obligations of all good citizens to resist every illegal trust, combination, and attempt against the just rights of property and the good order of society, in which are bound up the peace and happiness of our people."

The Kansas City Journal. (Mo.)

John McAuley Palmer, of Springfield, was born in Scott County, Ky., September 13, 1817. In 1852 he was elected to the state senate to fill a vacancy. He was elected again in November, 1854, as an independent anti-Nebraska candidate. Having declined to act with the Republican party, he resigned his seat in the senate. In 1860 he was made one of the electors-at-large on the Republican ticket; May 9, 1861, was elected colonel of the Fourteenth Regiment of Illinois Infantry; was promoted to brigadier-general of the volunteers in November, 1861; was promoted to the command of the Fourteenth Army Corps in October, 1863; commanded the military department of Kentucky from February, 1865, to May 1, 1866. He removed to Springfield in 1867, and was elected governor of Illinois in 1868. In 1890 was nominated by the Democrats of the state as candidate for senator, and carried the state by 40,000 plurality. His term will expire March 3, 1897.

The Argus. (Albany, N. Y.)

Simon Bolivar Buckner was born in Hart County, Ky., April 1, 1823. He graduated at West Point, went through the Mexican War, resigned from the army in 1855, and settled finally in Louisville. Here he was made major-general and commander-in-chief of the state militia. He organized the Kentucky State Guard in 1859-60, and accepted a brigadier-general's commission in the Confederate service September 15, 1861. He was one of the generals who surrendered at Baton Rouge, in May, 1865. By the terms of the surrender he was not permitted to return at once to Kentucky, so he took up his residence in New Orleans. Subsequently some valuable property which had been confiscated was returned to him, and by judicious management he became quite wealthy. In 1887 he was elected governor of Kentucky, and at the end of his term he returned to Hart County, where he and his family occupy the old homestead in which he was born.

(Dem.) The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

If any Democrat wants a third ticket, why let him have it. But really what need is there of another ticket when the one all-controlling issue is squarely joined in the two tickets already nominated? Are you for an honest dollar and an honest country? You have McKinley to vote for. Are you for repudiation and a cheap and dishonest dollar? Then Bryan is your man. There is a ticket for each side already in the field, and there cannot be three sides to that question.

(Dem.) The Times. (Hartford, Conn.)

The Indianapolis movement was the natural outcome of the feeling that many thousands of Democrats will not vote for McKinley under any circumstances, but will vote for a sound money Democrat rather than for Bryan.

(Dem.) New York World. (N. Y.)

The movement represented by the convention is a double protest. It is a protest of Democrats against the free silver and fiat money declarations of the Chicago platform. It is at the same time a protest on the part of such sound money Democrats against the necessity of voting for McKinleyism as their only means of dissenting from free silver. The men who make this protest are equally intense in their hostility to unsound money and to the paternal system of government represented by the Republican candidate.

(Dem.) The Cincinnati Enquirer. (Ohio.)

The Cleveland and Wall Street bolters from the Democratic party have strutted their little hour upon the political stage at Indianapolis and disappeared. It was a notable convention. It was a protest against the refusal of the two-thirds majority in the National Democratic Convention at Chicago to sell out to the New York and London operators in gold and United States bonds. It was a rebuke to the people for presuming to have opinions concerning the money question. It consisted of Cleveland office-holders and of bank emissaries. Its leading spirits were fossils from both parties. It was the free trade wing of the great high protection Republican party, whose standard bearer is William McKinley. It was the gold standard wing of the International Bimetallists.

(Ind.) The Times-Democrat. (New Orleans, La.)

For every voter who will desert the Democratic standard to follow this strange banner, ten free silver Republicans will desert the Republican gold standard.

(Ind.) The Times. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

The Indianapolis convention will be recognized as the surviving Democracy of the contest of 1896, and it will be the only Democracy known in the future conflicts of the political parties of this country.

(Ind.) The Buffalo Enquirer. (N. Y.)

The Indianapolis Convention has nominated Palmer and Buckner, and we think this ticket, more than any other that could be named, will help the election of McKinley.

(Ind.) The Boston Herald. (Mass.)

In nominating Senator Palmer, of Illinois, and

General Buckner, of Kentucky, as its candidates for president and vice president the Indianapolis convention has put a strong ticket in the field.

(*Rep.*) *The Inter Ocean.* (*Chicago, Ill.*)

The Democratic platform of 1896 gives no sign of progress toward the understanding of the temper and desires of the great mass of the people.

(*Rep.*) *The Kansas City Journal.* (*Mo.*)

The ticket will receive hundreds of thousands of votes, and after the defeat of the Chicago ticket in November the men who are behind this convention will again be the leaders of the national Democracy.

The Bryans, the Altgelds, the Tillmans, and the Pennoyers will slough off into Populism, where they belong.

(*Rep.*) *The Globe-Democrat.* (*St. Louis, Mo.*)

On the whole the Indianapolis convention did its work well. It showed a little better judgment, though, in its ticket than it did in its platform.

(*Rep.*) *The Worcester Telegram.* (*Mass.*)

The chief advantage of the Indianapolis ticket, if there is any advantage in it, will be in enabling sound money Democrats to take the stump against Bryan.

THE MATABELE WAR.

THE war which arose between the natives and Europeans in Matabeleland early in 1896 is now thought by the authorities at Buluwayo to be ended. A brilliant victory of the English under Colonel Plumer was followed on August 23 by advices from Buluwayo reporting the surrender of the principal Matabele chiefs to the British. The remnant of the natives scattered among the hills is too badly demoralized to be considered formidable.

Public Ledger. (*Philadelphia, Pa.*)

It is the order of progress that there shall always be a struggle for supremacy when civilized and savage men come in contact, and that the former shall always win in the end; but it has been demonstrated that the struggle can be carried on by peaceful means and the savages conquered by kindness instead of force, and it is a disgrace to the nation which considers itself the most highly civilized on the globe that it has never yet learned to apply the law of kindness, but always conquers by the use of force.

San Francisco Chronicle. (*Cal.*)

Certainly the fighting in this African valley was the fiercest which British troops have had to meet since the attack by Arabs on the Gordon relief

party. The savages received a crushing blow, but they came so near to success in the first wild rush that they may be encouraged to make another attempt.

The Philadelphia Inquirer. (*Pa.*)

No matter how much we may talk as to England's land-grabbing tendencies and the seizure of Africa by the powers of Europe, the Matabeles and all the other dusky dwellers of Africa must yield to the advance of civilization. In many respects the war with the Matabeles resembles the early Indian wars in this country. It cannot be that Africa, any more than America, is destined to be given over to barbarism, and while we may sometimes object to the methods employed in the cleaning out process, yet in the end the world is the gainer.

BICYCLE FAILURES.

The Sun. (*New York, N. Y.*)

There is a popular impression, based on the large number of failures of bicycle manufacturers which have occurred in the last two months, that the business of wheel-making is likely to be conducted on a far more conservative scale next year than has been the case this year. It is asserted that the output of some manufacturers of wheels of the '97 model will be no more than a third of their production for this year, and that they will pay more attention to the quality of their machines than ever before.

The reasons attributed for the recent numerous and heavy failures among bicycle manufacturers are very diverse. Some of the older makers ascribe them to inferiority of the construction, resulting from inexperience. Dealers say they have been due

to the fact that many of the insolvent companies lacked well-established reputation, while great overproduction and decreasing demand furnish the explanation for the public generally. Judging from the vast stock of wheels in the possession of popular makers, the last reason seems the most plausible. Many persons who would pay a fair price for a wheel last May couldn't be induced to buy one at cost now. There is a feeling among wheelmen that it is too late in the season to purchase a '96 wheel, and that bicycles will be as cheap, perhaps cheaper, besides being thoroughly up to date, when the next cycling season opens.

Among the cyclists, in this country at least, are men and women of good taste and business instinct, and a bicycle must be not only cheap and serviceable, but smart also, in order to obtain their favor.

Consequently, the bicycle concern that fails to dispose of its product before August must look sharp to obtain full prices for its wheels of that year's model after that time.

Many persons who pay little regard to the style or pattern of their wheels may avail themselves of the present low prices; but the small prices which they pay are not likely to go far toward alleviating the financial conditions of the manufacturers. Wheelmen are not growing scarce, and their ardor

is apparently not abating; but whether they and prospective riders will prefer to invest in a cheap '96 wheel, rather than wait for one of the '97 patterns at an unknown price, remains to be seen. It must be said, however, that cyclists have shown less reluctance this year than ever before about giving new and untried wheels a fair test; and the fact that bicycle failures occur is not an evidence that cyclists lack sympathy with the cause of good wheels at a cheap price.

LI HUNG CHANG.



LI HUNG CHANG.

CHINA's great statesman, His Excellency Li Hung Chang, senior guardian of the heir apparent, prime minister of state, earl of the first rank and entitled Su-Y, arrived in New York, N. Y., on August 28. With him were a viscount counselor, a first secretary, a viscount secretary, three ordinary secretaries, seven *attachés* two copyists, nine guards, and twelve servants. A greeting marked by the firing of guns and dipping of flags welcomed him to our shores with all due honor. In New York Harbor he was received by Major-general Thomas H. Ruger, commander of the eastern department of the United States Army, representing President Cleveland, and by Mr. W. W. Rockhill, representing the State Department, who with a body of cavalry escorted him to the Waldorf Hotel. The following day President Cleveland arrived in New York as the guest of ex-Secretary W. C. Whitney and gave a brief audience to the distinguished visitor at Mr. Whitney's home. Attorney-general Harmon, ex-Secretary of State Foster, ex-Ministers to China Young and Seward, General H. Wilson, and Secretary of State Olney were present at this meeting. Later the viceroy visited General Grant's tomb. A journey to West Point and back, an interview with missionaries, a luncheon given him by the Merchants' Club, a trip to the Chinatown section of New York, and a day in Brooklyn occupied him till September 3, when he went to Philadelphia and on to Wash-

ington. On September 6 he left the capitol for Niagara Falls. Here he was met by representatives of the Canadian government, who escorted him to Vancouver, where he embarked for China. Born seventy-four years ago, Li Hung Chang has seen nearly half a century of public service as a soldier and diplomat. He is also a scholar and attained membership in Hanlin College, which is the "French Academy" of the Chinese. He is of pure Chinese extraction. Though not of royal descent he acquired an education and at Peking took high honors in the examinations which decide the grade of social rank in China. He then aspired to some civil position that would allow him to continue his studies, but the Taiping rebellion took him to the battlefield instead. He organized a regiment of militia and made war so well that the Chinese field forces were placed under his direction, the emperor made him earl and gave him the famous yellow jacket, the special insignia of the emperor's favor. Later Li Hung Chang's negotiations in regard to the Tientsin riot were so satisfactory that since then every important treaty or diplomatic work has been entrusted to him wholly or in part, and it was largely owing to his influence that a treaty of peace was negotiated between China and Japan at the close of the recent Sino-Japanese war. In religion he is a Confucianist. His fealty to his mother and family has prompted much favorable comment.

The Chicago Record. (Ill.)

No doubt the war with Japan had much to do with broadening Li's ideas as to the future of China. He is still a thorough Chinaman, devoted to all the national principles and to the autocracy which governs the vast oriental empire. But he is the first eminent Asiatic of his race to go forth personally

to broaden China's relations with the outer world. His journey cannot fail to impress him still further with the need of bringing the oriental empire nearer to the plane of civilization. The powers which do most to welcome him and establish friendly relations will be doing the most for the redemption of Asia and the best for their own interest.

The Ohio State Journal. (Columbus.)

Li Hung Chang has been called the "Bismarck of China." The designation is hardly more complimentary to him than to the eminent German statesman. As a matter of fact there is very little similarity between the two men, so far as personal characteristics are concerned, but in the qualities of statesmanship they may properly be associated. Both have had illustrious careers.

The Republican Standard. (Bridgeport, Conn.)

If he does not know everything that he is entitled to know besides some things that are not strictly his legitimate business, then it will not be because he has not asked the questions calculated to put him in possession of the facts. He is a shrewd questioner also and there is a method in his interrogatives which it requires an application of the Chinese standpoint to comprehend.

The Pittsburg News. (Pa.)

From the time he appeared at the coronation of the czar up to the time we went to bed last night he has been the same benign, inscrutable, perverse old pagan. The only thing anybody knows about Li's business is that nobody knows anything except Li.

The Rhode Island Country Journal. (Providence.)

From the appearance of Li Hung Chang it is evident that he would have been abundantly supplied with gorgeous raiment even if neither the yellow jacket nor the peacock feather had been restored to him. "Solomon in all his glory" wouldn't have been in it a little bit with this modern wise man of the East.

The Atlanta Constitution. (Ga.)

That he does not employ his powers in the matter of eating is nothing to his discredit. He certainly has maintained his independence and dignity in such a way as should make ridiculous the Americans who ape anything and everything English and always find away from home the best. This disposition of the Chinese to cling to the customs of his fathers is not always a bad thing. There is much to be admired in Chinese customs, and where they have a disposition to retain all that is good of their own and yet throw open their gates to learn of the outside world, they are acting wisely.

The Times-Democrat. (New Orleans, La.)

Not all the imperial power could purchase for the man enthroned the title of the worldwide respect unpurchased by the man throneless.

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

Many people in the United States will be led to look more kindly upon the Chinese among us by reason of Li Hung Chang's visit to the country. The Chinese who dwell here are a peaceful, well-disposed, shrewd, and industrious portion of mankind. The proportion of criminals among them is smaller than among some of the other races which form a part of the community.

The Mail and Express. (New York, N. Y.)

The loose and violent denunciation of the Chinese Exclusion Act by Li Hung Chang was a gross and offensive breach of diplomatic courtesy and etiquette. His utterances upon the subject were at once ill-mannered and amazing, and a glaring violation of custom and propriety. It was precisely as if the American secretary of state, while paying an official visit to London, were to indulge in an angry denunciation of England's policy toward Ireland.

The Cincinnati Enquirer. (Ohio.)

There ought to be an official reception of Li Hung Chang—one fairly representing the dignity, graciousness, and good manners of our people—one that will befit the rank and importance of the visitor; but it is at least doubtful if his appearance should be the occasion for trotting out our presidential establishment.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

The orientals are, of all people, most scrupulous and most sensitive on points of etiquette and hospitality, and Li is about the hardest man in the world to explain any shortcomings to. It would be most deplorable to have him go back to Peking and report that the queen of England received him in her own great castle at Windsor and her own splendid house at Osborne, but the president of the United States either had not a mansion of his own to receive him in, or was unwilling to receive him there, and so put upon him the humiliation of meeting him in the house of a private citizen, borrowed for the occasion.

The Tribune. (Minneapolis, Minn.)

There is some criticism of the fact that President Cleveland came to see Li Hung instead of waiting for Li Hung to call on him. But the latter couldn't be expected to know the way to all the best fishing spots in this country, and it wouldn't have done any good to go to Washington.

Harrisburg Telegraph. (Pa.)

He has already captured the affections of the American people. His splendid tribute to General Grant and his graceful act of placing a wreath on the tomb of the dead hero show that he is not devoid of love and sentiment. That one act would have endeared Li to the American people, even if he remained silent as to his opinion of them or betrayed no interest in his surroundings. As it is he has been remarkably free with his compliments concerning this country and its people and he has kept the reporters busy chronicling all the nice things he has to say.

The Philadelphia Inquirer. (Pa.)

Our commercial relations with China are not large, and so in our welcome of its envoy we cannot be charged with any selfish motive. But when we consider what a factor he has been in the progress made by his country in the arts of civilization, he de-

serves to be treated with greater respect than if he were an autocratic ruler from Europe. A race, too, which can produce such a man is capable of even greater advancement and its friendship might yet be valuable.

The Denver Republican. (Col.)

That he possesses great ability of some kind cannot be doubted, for he has succeeded in a way that would be impracticable for a man of poor talents. But he is at the same time very intensely Chinese in his prejudices. Like practically all other Chinese he objects to the introduction of western customs that supplant those of China, and he has given little en-

couragement to those who have sought to bring China into touch and sympathy with the western world.

The Pioneer Press. (St. Paul, Minn.)

When we consider that his work has been hedged with opposition and frustrated continually by the impervious national temperament, that his policy has been in the cause of enlightenment and progress, and that it has been carried out singlehanded, we are surely justified in accepting General Grant's statement that Li Hung Chang was a great man. He placed him in a list of four—Gladstone, Bismarck, and Gambetta being the other three.

CRETAN TROUBLES ENDING.

PROPOSITIONS for the relief of the Cretans urged upon the Porte by the Austrian minister of foreign affairs, Count Goluchowski, have succeeded in gaining what all the protests and intrigues of the powers have failed to gain—that is, favorable recognition by the sultan of Turkey. Count Goluchowski's new constitution for Crete provides for the appointment of a Christian governor. It grants to the Cretans financial autonomy, with the payment of tribute to the sultan, the amount of tribute to be based upon the ratio of the revenues of the island and paid annually under the general guarantee of the European powers. The dispatch of August 24 reporting the sultan's acquiescence in these proposals says that they have been approved by the Christian deputies of Crete.

The Philadelphia Record. (Pa.)

The dismemberment of the Ottoman Empire goes on apace, and it is only a question of a short time—months, perhaps—when the next claimant for autonomy will thunder for recognition.

Hamburger Nachrichten. (Germany.)

We share the opinion of the powers that a European war would be a greater evil than the continued oppression for some years of the Cretans, and we should regard any European statesman who was willing to risk the bones of a single soldier in the cause of the Cretans as a blind fool or a depraved criminal.

The Philadelphia Inquirer. (Pa.)

The plan of settlement which has been adopted is, therefore, more just than to have permitted Greece to have absolute control of the island. In

the latter case there would undoubtedly have been a persecution of the Mohammedans just as there was of the Christians under Turkish rule, although it might not have been so cruel.

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

The moral right of the Christian Cretans to preponderance is obvious, and there is no doubt that, although at first some reprisals may be visited upon the Moslems, they will eventually make a good use of autonomy.

New York Observer. (N. Y.)

No doubt with such a population as that of Crete, and with the bitter *vendetta* existing between the Moslems and Christians, there will be trouble at first under any plan; but if the powers prevent interference by the Porte, the Cretans may be trusted to eventually make good use of their autonomy.

ENGLAND RELINQUISHES TRINIDAD.

BRAZIL'S vigorous objection to the seizure of her island Trinidad by England, in January, 1895, has resulted in Brazil's regaining her territory. Her protests were unrelenting and last winter England offered to submit the matter to arbitration. This Brazil refused on the ground that England on September 3, 1895, had recognized her occupation of the disputed land as an encroachment by offering to waive ownership to it on condition that a lease be granted a British cable company to establish a telegraph station there. Finally in June it was reported that both countries had consented to accept the good offices of Portugal in settling the matter, and a dispatch from Madrid of August 6 stated that Portugal had awarded Trinidad to Brazil and the English had agreed promptly to surrender the island. This news was confirmed by advices of August 26 received at Washington from Rio Janeiro, Brazil, which state that a British warship sailed from Rio Janeiro on August 25 to haul down the British colors on Trinidad.

The Mail and Express. (New York, N. Y.)

England's abandonment of the unwarranted protectorate which she attempted to establish over the island of Trinidad, off the coast of Brazil, is a distinct gain for the principle set forth by this government in the Venezuela affair. England had no claim whatever to Trinidad. She concluded that it would make an excellent coaling station for her navy, and she therefore simply seized it and held on to it. Brazil protested so vigorously, however, that the British government has relinquished her grip on the territory and admitted that the property does not belong to her. Thus one of England's crafty little land grabs ends in exposure and restitution.

The Philadelphia Inquirer. (Pa.)

Some time ago England established a protectorate over the island of Trinidad, off the coast of Brazil. It was an unwarranted act on her part. She had not the shadow of a claim to the island, but she saw that it would make an excellent coaling station for her navy, and so she seized it. Brazil, however, protested so much and so strongly that England has relinquished her hold on the island and admitted that it does not belong to her. It is not likely, however, that she has experienced a complete change of heart and will quit her land-grabbing habit for good.

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

So ends an occupation that has lasted a little more than a year, and that seems to have been undertaken simply because England found that Trinidad would be a convenient place for a telegraph station, and accordingly seized it. There were, it is true, sundry grounds on which the British claim was supposed to rest, but it is needless to discuss them now, as the act of hauling down the British colors practically disposes of them. We may be sure that England would not have released her hold had she possessed anything like a defensible right; and, in fact, her weakening was apparent when, some time ago, according to the report, she agreed to give up all claim to sovereignty there, if Brazil would allow her to use Trinidad as a cable station. What Brazil may have found to be for her interest in that matter does not yet appear, but the great point is that the British flag has come down. It had become a serious question when and how our own government might have to act, assuming this to have been a forcible seizure of Brazilian territory by a European power; but Brazil apparently did not ask aid from us, feeling confident that she could manage the affair successfully herself, and this she has now done.

CARDINAL SATOLLI'S SUCCESSOR.



THE REV. SEBASTIAN MARTINELLI.
The New Papal Delegate to the United States. America.

THE pope has recently appointed the Very Rev. Sebastian Martinelli, prior-general of the Augustinian Monks, to succeed Cardinal Satolli as papal delegate of the Roman Catholic Church in the United States. Accordingly on August 30 the consecration of Father Martinelli as a special archbishop *in partibus* took place at Rome in the presence of the foreign envoys to the Vatican, Cardinal Rampolla, the papal secretary of state, performing the consecration ceremony. The new papal delegate was received by the pope on August 31 and will come to the United States at the close of September. He was born August 20, 1848, in the parish of Sant' Anna, Lucca, Tuscany. When still a boy he went to Rome. Here he taught for twenty-one years and was made resident regent of studies at San Carlo on the Corso. About seven years ago he was elected prior-general of the Hermits of the Order of Saint Augustine, an order which originated in 1854. He is said to be the first Augustinian general that ever has come to North

The Independent. (New York, N. Y.)

He has filled that high and responsible position [the prior-generalship] with distinction and is also a member of the Holy Office, the supreme tribunal of Rome, which is called upon to decide some of the weightiest questions in the Christian world. Younger looking than his years, he comes to the United States with the vigor of manhood, in the prime of usefulness. A mingling of dignity and ascetic simplicity gives him a charming personality. He is a master of English as well as Italian, speaking with

the vivacious ardor of his countrymen, yet directed by a keen insight and delicate sympathy. . . . We shall be sorry to have Cardinal Satolli leave us. What he has done in justice for oppressed priests and congregations would make a very interesting volume. We only trust that his successor will be as judicious and firm and fair in the adjudication of ecclesiastical cases and as liberal in policy.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

It is pretty certain that the new apostolic delegate will not find his office a bed of roses. Many Ameri-

can bishops dislike the religious orders; or, if they do not actually dislike them, they believe that the religious orders are calculated to retard rather than advance the interests of the church, especially in this country. This impression will raise up against Father Martinelli, if he is appointed apostolic delegate, the opposition of many who have been most friendly to Cardinal Satolli. It was the conservatives chiefly who objected to the latter, while the

liberals generally stood by him. Only a few months ago that well-known liberal, Archbishop Ireland, in an address in Washington, cited history to show that the religious orders have weakened the church, and declared that the church in this country owed its prosperity to the secular clergy. In view of this feeling, which is quite general, the appointment of Father Martinelli would be a bitter disappointment to a large number of American Catholics.

REVOLT IN THE PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

SPAIN'S troops and ammunition recruited to cope with Cuba must now be shared with the Philippine Islands. On August 21 the Spanish authorities at Madrid learned of a conspiracy in these islands to secure their independence from Spain, and on September 1 advices from Manila, the capital of the islands, stated that the insurgents had captured and barricaded a number of villages. According to news of September 5 an attack by land and sea upon the rebel intrenchments resulted in the defeat of the insurgents, but they rallied, and a message received at Madrid the next day reported them to be so strongly intrenched as to make imprudent an attack by the Spaniards until Spanish reinforcements should arrive. Dispatches of September 7 announce that a thousand insurgents, led by Santollano, a half-breed, invaded San Isidro, capital of Luzon, the chief island in the Philippine group, and captured the governor, his secretary, and priest. Later telegrams report the situation to be serious. Business is at a standstill.

The Mail and Express. (New York, N. Y.)

At the present moment there is quite a colony of so-called Manila reformers in Hong-Kong, and others at various places in the East. The British and American merchants in that part of the world are unspeakably bitter against the Spanish government on account of its unending rapacity, fraud, and theft, and will undoubtedly aid any insurrection which shows the slightest promise of success.

The Denver Republican. (Col.)

The revolt in the Philippine Islands may seriously complicate matters for Spain, for it has already as much as it can manage in the Cuban revolution. It cannot afford to let the Philippine Islands go, but if it sends troops there and spends much money in suppressing this revolt it may be prevented from prosecuting as vigorous a campaign against the Cuban insurgents as a suppression of that revolution would demand.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

There is nothing surprising in the outbreak of an insurrection in the Philippine Islands. Indeed, ground down as the unfortunate natives are between the despotism of church and state, it is astonishing that they should have submitted so long to Spanish tyranny and extortion. The revolt may prove an even greater source of trouble and expense to the Madrid government than that now raging in Cuba.

The Philadelphia Inquirer. (Pa.)

The majority of the natives [of the Philippine Islands] are Malays, proverbially brave and ferocious and with an inborn hatred of their Spanish rulers. To add to the gravity of the situation, it is

asserted that Japan contemplates the seizure of the islands, and if she were to attempt this the natives would readily flock to her standard. Cuba is far from Spain and it has been found difficult to transport troops there; the Philippine Islands are thousands of miles from Spain and the difficulties will be greater in that case. The first shipment of the forty thousand men ordered to Cuba has now been sent to that island. Where another army is to be found it is difficult to comprehend, and when Spain is menaced in every portion of her dominions the end must come.

The Times Union. (Jacksonville, Fla.)

Cuba could not strike Spain a more deadly blow than through the Philippine islands. With both in revolt Spain could not even make a respectable attempt to conquer either. With both in revolt, a revolution would be probable in Spain which would tax the power of the government to the utmost for its suppression.

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

The revolt in the Philippines, which calls for both troops and ships to check its spread, was not needed to show the desperate straits in which Spain is involved through her colonial affairs. Cuba is not a whit nearer being conquered than it was months ago, and meanwhile there is something significant in the news that the Spanish war minister is counting not only on the abolition of the permission to purchase freedom from military service, but on reducing the physical requirements, thus compelling men hitherto exempt on account of their small size to serve in the army.

SUMMARY OF NEWS.

HOME.

August 11. The International Association of Fire Engineers holds its twentieth annual session in Salt Lake City, Utah.—More than 100 deaths in New York and 60 in Chicago are reported to have been caused by the heat.

August 12. The League of American Wheelmen holds its annual convention at Louisville, Ky.

August 14. The dismissal of two cadets from West Point Military Academy for hazing is approved by President Cleveland.—The American Line steamer *St. Paul* breaks the ocean record by crossing the Atlantic in 6 days and 31 minutes.

August 16. The State Department is informed by the United States consul at Samoa that the Samoan government, under the treaty, is a failure and the islands are fast losing their prosperity.

August 19. Col. Charles G. Sawtelle is appointed quartermaster-general of the army, with the rank of brigadier-general.—Two thousand delegates of the Young People's Union of the United Presbyterian Church convene at Omaha, Neb.

August 22. The Uniform Rank Knights of Pythias open their eighteenth encampment at Cleveland, O.

August 23. R. D. Wrenn wins the national tennis championship at Newport by defeating F. H. Hovey.

August 26. An order issued by the civil-service commission warns all federal employees against making or soliciting contributions for campaign purposes.—Fire demolishes Ontonagon, Mich., making two thousand persons homeless.

August 27. The Louisville, Ky., board of public safety is impeached and a new board installed.

August 30. The government commission on seal fisheries reports that the seal herds in northern waters have dwindled to a mere fraction of their former number.

August 31. The G. A. R. goes into encampment at St. Paul, Minn.

September 1. The Vermont elections go Republican by a majority of 39,000.—Joseph Chamberlain, British colonial secretary, and his wife visit Mrs. Chamberlain's parents at Danvers, Mass.

September 4. At St. Paul, Minn., Major Thaddeus S. Clarkson, of Nebraska, is chosen by acclamation to be commander-in-chief of the G. A. R.—The released Irish political prisoner, Dr. Gallagher, arrives in New York, N. Y.

FOREIGN.

August 8. The Standard Bank of Toronto, Can., announces a discount of ten per cent on United States \$1 bills or silver certificates.

August 9. Astronomers in Norway, Japan, and other eastern countries observe the total eclipse of the sun.

August 12. The sultan of Turkey confers the order of *nichaci-chefukat* (second class) upon Miss Clara Barton.—Mollah Reza, who shot the shah of Persia dead on May 1, is hanged at Teheran.

August 14. Parliament is prorogued by Queen Victoria till October 31.

August 15. The Bulgarian Cabinet resigns.—General Bronsart von Schellendorf, the German minister of war, resigns.

August 17. In Belfast a demonstration in favor of Irish political prisoners ends in a serious riot.

August 19. Canada's eighth Parliament opens at Ottawa; it is reported that an agreement on the Manitoba school question has been reached by Premier Laurier and the Manitoba ministers.

August 21. A conspiracy in the Philippine Islands to secure independence from Spain is made known to the Spanish authorities at Madrid.

August 22. The International Literary and Artistic Association begins its eighteenth congress at Berne, Switzerland.

August 23. Advices from Cuba report that the provisional government has ordered a campaign of destruction.

August 26. Italian emigration to Brazil is suspended by order of the Italian government.

August 28. General Weyler orders military penalties to be imposed for refusal to take paper money in trade.—Premier Ito and all the Japanese Cabinet resign.

August 30. The Italian government calls Brazil to account for injuries inflicted on Italians in the recent disturbances in Brazil.—France signs a twelve-year treaty of commerce with Japan.

September 1. The *Figaro*, of Paris, announces M. Nelidoff, Russian ambassador in Constantinople, for the minister of war, Prince Lobanoff's successor.—Representatives of the Irish race open their convention in Leinster Hall, London.

NECROLOGY.

August 12. Hubert A. Newton, professor of mathematics at Yale.

August 20. Prof. A. H. Green, geologist.

August 23. Prof. Nicholas Rudinger, German anatomist.

August 30. Charles Stanley Reinhart, American illustrator.—Prince Lobanoff Rostovsky, Russian minister of foreign affairs.

C. L. S. C. OUTLINE AND PROGRAMS.

FOR OCTOBER.

OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING.

First Week (ending October 8).

"The Growth of the French Nation." Chapters I. and II.

"French Traits"; "The Social Instinct."

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"A Group of Eminent French Women."

Sunday Reading for October 4.

Second Week (ending October 15).

"The Growth of the French Nation." Chapters III., IV., and V.

"French Traits"; "Morality."

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"The French Republic."

"Richelieu."

Sunday Reading for October 11.

Third Week (ending October 22).

"The Growth of the French Nation." Chapter VI.

"French Traits"; "Intelligence."

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"The Geographical Position of France."

"The Literary Movement in France."

Sunday Reading for October 18.

Fourth Week (ending October 29).

"The Growth of the French Nation." Chapters VII. and VIII.

"French Traits": "Sense and Sentiment."

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"The Rise and Fall of New France."

Sunday Reading for October 25.

SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLE WORK.

FIRST WEEK.

1. Words of welcome by the leader.
2. Enrolling of new members.
3. Roll Call.
4. The Lesson.
5. A Talk—The cave-dwellers and primitive man of the Stone Age.
6. Historical Study—Hannibal and his invasion of Gaul.
7. Character Sketch—Julius Cæsar.
8. Discussion—The relation of character, energy, and environment.

SECOND WEEK.

1. The Lesson.
2. Essay—The English and the Frankish Magna Charta.
3. Table Talk—The advantages of a republic over a monarchy.
4. Historical Study—Henry III. and the relation of England to France during his reign.

5. Essay—The constitutional relationship between France and the United States.

7. Discussion—Great Britain in Africa.*

THIRD WEEK.

1. The Lesson.
2. A Geographical Study—France.
3. Essay—Feudalism and chivalry.
4. Discussion—The influence of the character of a king on the character and development of the country.
5. Table Talk—Crete.*
6. Conversation—The writers of a single song.*

FOURTH WEEK.

1. The Lesson.
2. Essay—The crusades, the causes and the results.
3. Character Sketch—Richard the Lion-heart.
4. A Talk—The early French explorers.
5. Conversation—The geographical growth of France.
6. General Discussion—Arbitration and its influence on the governments of the world.*

For the new circles a few words explanatory of the design of this department of THE CHAUTAUQUAN may be necessary. The *Suggestive Programs* are not to be considered in any way as obligatory, but they may be used as given, changed to suit the special needs of any circle, or rejected entirely at the will of the workers. The *Programs* are made out principally in a line with the Required Reading and though sometimes that which should be the prominent feature of every meeting—The Lesson—may not be mentioned it is to be understood, and will be found assigned in *The Outline*.

This department of THE CHAUTAUQUAN contains also the *C. L. S. C. Notes and Word Studies*, which are designed to help remove difficulties found in the course of study.

The *Questions and Answers* will help fix in mind the important facts treated in the *C. L. S. C.* books.

The *Question Table*, if rightly used, will add interest to the meeting and give the readers a broader view of the subjects studied. One set of the questions will be in a line with the subjects treated in the department of *Current History and Opinion*.

In the *C. L. S. C. Classes* and *Local Circles* will be found reports of what the large number of co-workers in this educational field are doing, and much can be learned by studying the methods employed in carrying on the work in different sections of the country.

* See *Current History and Opinion*.

C. L. S. C. NOTES AND WORD STUDIES.

O.V. REQUIRED READING FOR OCTOBER.

"THE GROWTH OF THE FRENCH NATION."

P. 14. "Celtic race." The Celts belonged to the Aryan or Indo-European family. In pre-historic times they migrated from Asia into Europe, probably before any other tribe of the same family left Asia.

P. 16. "Cisalpine Gaul." The word *cisalpine* is derived from the Latin preposition *cis*, on this side, and *alpinus*, alpine; hence that part of Gaul on this side of the Alps, that is, on the side toward Rome. It extended south and east from the Alps.

P. 16. "Ædui" [ɛd'ū-i]. Celts once living in central Gaul between the Loire and the Saône[sôn] Rivers. The "Sequani [sek'wa-ni] lived east of the Ædui, the Saône River being between them. The "Arverni," their allies, probably occupied the territory called Auvergne on the map in the text-book.

P. 16. "Helvetians." "The members of a Celtic tribe which in the time of Cæsar occupied a district between the Jura Mountains and the Rhine."

P. 17. "Belgæ" [bel'jē]. A people of Celtic origin who occupied the territory included in modern Belgium, Luxemburg, northeastern France, southern Holland, and a portion of western Germany.

P. 18. "Roman roads." A system of paved roads constructed throughout the Roman Empire.

P. 21. "Curial." Pertaining to the *curia*, the thirty divisions into which Romulus divided the citizens of Rome, ten for each of the three tribes.

P. 24. "Attila." The king of the Huns, a people about whose origin little is known with certainty. Some authorities assert that they were a Mongolian nation occupying the country north of the Chinese wall.

P. 24. "Châlons" [shāl'lon'; ɣ represents the nasal sound in French, which approximates the English sound of *ng*. To produce the nasals, which occur frequently in syllables ending in *m* or *n*, pronounce the preceding vowel as if *ng* were to be added, but avoid pressing the back of the tongue against the palate as is done in pronouncing English words ending in *ng*.]

P. 25. "Soissons" [swā-son'].

P. 26. "Ostrogoths." The eastern Goths. A branch of the Gothic race which at one time occupied territory in Russia near the Don River.

P. 27. "Vouille" [voo-yā' or vool-yā']. A town a few miles northwest of Poitiers.

P. 32. "Septimania." An ancient division in southern France extending from the mouth of the Rhone River along the Mediterranean coast to the Pyrenees Mountains and north to the Cevennes.

P. 33. "Slavs" [slāvz]. A race of people scattered throughout Eastern, Southeastern, and Central Europe. The Russians, Bulgarians, Poles, and Bohemians are some of the people belonging to this race.

P. 39. "Aquitaniens." The inhabitants of Aquitania, an ancient division in the southwestern part of France, between the Pyrenees Mountains and the Garonne River.

P. 39. "Frisians" [frē'zianz]. The people of Friesland, a province in the Netherlands.

P. 40. "Poitiers" [pwā-tyā'].

P. 41. The "Lombards," or Longobardi were an ancient Germanic race so named, according to their national literature, from their habit of wearing long beards.

P. 43. "Charlemagne" [shar'le-mān].

P. 43. "Avars." "A tribe of Turanian origin who first appear in European history about the middle of the sixth century. About the ninth century they disappeared from history.

P. 45. "Alcuin" [al'kwīn].

P. 46. "*Missi dominici*." Latin meaning imperial messengers.

P. 76. "Oriflamme." From the Latin *aurum*, gold, and *flamma*, flame. It was made of red or flame-colored silk and beautifully adorned.

P. 86. "Bouvines" [bōō-vēn']. A village a few miles southeast of Lille, France.

P. 86. "Guelfs" [gwelfs]. A powerful family of Germany which derived its name from Welf I. during the time of Charlemagne. Members of this family at one time held large possessions in Italy.

P. 87. "*Prévôt*" [prā-vō']. Provost.

P. 87. "*Baillis*" [almost bā-ī']. Bailiffs.

P. 88. "*Trouvères*" [troo-vār']. Medieval poets of northern France whose compositions were epic in character.—*Langue d'oïl* [lāng dwēl']. Tongue, or language, of *oil*, yes. In the south *oc* was used for the affirmative, hence their dialect was called *langue d'oc* [lāng-dōk'].

P. 99. "*Lèse-majesty*." High treason.

"FRENCH TRAITS."

P. 1. "Midi" [mē'dē']. South.

P. 1. "Romanesque" [rō-mān-esk']. A style of architecture distinguished for its severity and simplicity of style.

P. 1. "*Bonhomie*." French. Good nature.

P. 1. "St. Remy" [ra-mē']. The "Apostle of the Franks" and the bishop of Rheims. He died at Rheims about 533.—"St. Jean." A Gothic

church at Lyons.—“Nouvel Opéra.” New opera. A prominent theater of Paris.

P. 1. “Sainte Chapelle” [sɑ̃ shǎ-pěł]. A church built in the thirteenth century at Paris by the order of St. Louis “to contain the crown of thorns and a piece of the true cross bought by that monarch from the emperor of Constantinople.”

P. 2. “Panthéon.” [pon-tǎ-ôn]. An ecclesiastical building built in the form of a Greek cross.

P. 2. “Avignon.” [ä-vën-yôn]. The papal palace was built here during the fourteenth century. —“Cannebière.” The handsomest street in the new part of the city of Marseilles.—“Chartres Sculpture.” Sculpture used in Chartres in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries.—“M. Falguière” [fāl-gyār]. A nineteenth century painter and sculptor of France.—“Plessis-les-Tours” [plǎ-sē-lā-toor]. “A ruined castle near Tours, France, noted as the residence of Louis XI,” king of France (1461-1483).

P. 2. “*Mutatis mutandis*.” Latin. The necessary changes being made.

P. 2. “Lanzknechts.” Lancers or spearmen.

P. 2. “Meister-singers.” A class of German minstrels who flourished during the fourteenth, fifteenth, and sixteenth centuries.

P. 2. “Figurines” [fig-u-rēnz’ or fig’ur-ēnz]. A very small figure in terra-cotta or some other material of less durability than bronze or marble.—“Baroque” [bā-rōk]. A word used in decorative art to signify a style of ornamentation in which richness or display rather than refinement or appropriateness is the object sought.

P. 2. “Winckelmann” [vīnk’el-mān] (1717-1768). A German archæologist. “He is regarded as the founder of scientific archæology and of the historical and critical investigation of the antiquities.”

P. 3. “Burgkmair” [bōörk-mīr]. A painter and engraver born in Germany in 1473.—“Schongauer” [shon’gou-er]. A German historical painter and engraver of the fifteenth century.

P. 3. “Louis le Gros.” Louis the Great; Louis XIV.

P. 4. “Philippe-le-Bel.” Philip the Fair, Philip IV., king of France from 1285 to 1314.

P. 4. “Byzantinism” [bi-zan’tin-izm]. The principles and methods employed by the Byzantines, the inhabitants of the Byzantine Empire, or the Eastern Roman Empire.

P. 4. “Notre Dame de Paris” [nō-tr-dām’ du Pǎ-rē]. A very imposing and noted cathedral in Paris.

P. 5. “Hollandsch Diep.” Spelled also Hollands-Diep [hol’lānts-deep]. The principal arm of the Waal River, which divides and forms two of the largest mouths of the Rhine.

P. 7. “Ignatius.” A bishop of Antioch who,

tradition says, suffered martyrdom about the first of the second century.—“St. Theresa” [te-rē’sǎ]. A Spanish saint famous for her mystic visions and writings.

P. 7. “Sold indulgences.” Granted the remission of temporal penalties for sins after a certain sum of money had been paid.

P. 7. “*Solidaire*.” Jointly interested or responsible.

P. 9. “Millet” [mē-yā]. A French artist.

P. 10. “*Cher maître*.” French words meaning literally, dear master, dear lord.

P. 10. “*Fils*” [fis]. Son.

P. 12. “*Milieu*.” The French for medium.

P. 13. “*Petits jeunes gens*.” French. Humble young persons.

P. 13. “*Arrivés*.” French meaning literally, happened by chance.

P. 14. “*Abbé Roux*” [ab-bā’ rōō].

P. 15. “*Pensées d’un Solitaire*.” French. Thoughts of a recluse.

P. 16. “*Bovard*.” French. A loquacious person.—“*Nature condensée*.” French words meaning literally, a condensed nature; reserved.

P. 17. “*In vacuo*.” Latin. In empty space.

P. 17. “*Bacchanalian*.” Pertaining to the bacchanalia, feasts in honor of Bacchus, the god of wine. These feasts were usually characterized by much wine drinking and boisterous jollity.

P. 17. “*Frappée par*,” etc. Smitten by the scourge of vanity.

P. 19. “*Ceteris paribus*.” Latin. Other things being equal.

P. 19. “*Bonté*.” Goodness, kindness.

P. 19. “*Champs Elysées*” [shon’zǎ-lē-zǎ]. A grand avenue in Paris, one and one-fourth miles long, with the gardens surrounding it, used as a place of public resort.

P. 20. “*Citadins*.” Citizens.

P. 20. “*Caballero*” [kā-bāl-yā-ro]. The pseudonym used by Cecilia Böhl de Faber, a Spanish novelist of the nineteenth century.—“*Naturalidad*.” Spanish. Naturalness; conformity to nature and truth.

P. 20. “*Genus irritabile*.” Latin. Irritable race.

P. 21. “*Poche Américaine*.” American pocket.

P. 22. “*Cela donne à penser*.” French. That gives something to think about.

P. 25. “*La patrie*.” French. The country.

P. 25. “*C’est magnifique*,” etc. It is magnificent, but it is not war.

P. 25. “*Fortescue*” [fôr-tes-ku]. An English writer on law.

P. 27. “*Ialévy*” [ā-lā-vē]. A dramatist.

P. 27. “*Mobiles*.” The *gardes mobiles*, or the body of guards.

P. 29. “*Dulce et decorum est*.” Latin. It is sweet and glorious.

- P. 32. Caraccioli [kā-rāt'cho-lee].
- P. 33. "*Ex vi termini.*" Latin. By the meaning or force of the expression.
- P. 33. "*La haine.*" French. Hatred.
- P. 35. "*Ils en appelaient,*" etc. French. They appealed to posterity.—"*Ah! Monsieur,*" etc. Ah! sir, no, a thousand times no!
- P. 35. "*C'était différent.*" That was different.
- P. 35. "*Vox populi and vox Dei.*" Latin. The voice of the people and the voice of God.
- P. 35. "Challemel-Lacour" [shāl-mel'lā-koor']. A politician of France.
- P. 36. "*Summum bonum.*" Latin. The chief good.
- P. 36. "*Bête.*" French. Foolish.
- P. 38. "*La gloire.*" French. Glory.
- P. 40. "La Bruyère" [lā brü-yêr'; to give the sound of ü, when the lips are in position to utter oo, pronounce ē without changing the position of the lips, and the result will approximate the sound of the French ü]. A moralist of the seventeenth century.
- P. 42. "*Gobe-mouche.*" French. Trifler; one who has no opinion of his own.
- P. 43. "*Aplomb.*" French. Self-command; assurance.
- P. 44. "*C'est subtil.*" French. That is subtle.
- P. 44. "*Est-ce que,*" etc. French. Are not all honest people good, then?
- P. 44. "*Bonasse.*" French. Simple, foolish.
- P. 45. "*Volonté.*" Volition.—"*Du caractère.*" Some spirit; character.
- P. 45. "*Sæva indignatio.*" Latin. Violent indignation, or disdain.
- P. 46. "*Bon,*" etc. Good, bad, of a bad character.
- P. 46. "*Naïf.*" French. Ingenuous, artless.
- P. 47. "*Mot*" [mō]. A word, a joke,—"*Mot plein,*" etc. A jest full of spirit and full of malice.
- P. 47. "Plon-Plon" [plōn-plōn']. A nickname given to Prince Napoleon Bonaparte because he is supposed to have acted cowardly in the Crimean War.
- P. 48. "*Vincit omnia.*" Latin. Conquers all things.
- P. 48. "Cythera" [si-thē'ra]. One of the Ionian Isles which contained a shrine of Aphrodite, the goddess of beauty, love, and marriage.
- P. 49. "Hippolytan." Pertaining or belonging to Hippolytus, who, according to Greek mythology, was an extremely virtuous youth.
- P. 49. "*J'ai mes faiblesses,*" etc. I have my weaknesses. I have regretted feeling sometimes that I diminished my ardor there, but never have I perverted my heart.
- P. 50. "Chevreuse" [she-vrüz']. A political intriguer of France in the seventeenth century.
- P. 51. "*A posteriori.*" Latin, meaning literally, from what comes or follows after; from effect to cause.
- P. 52. "*Obiter dictum.*" Latin. Said in passing; incidentally.
- P. 56. "*Sui generis.*" Latin. Of its own kind or character.
- P. 58. "*Il faut,*" etc. French. It is necessary to cultivate our garden.
- P. 59. "Condorcet" [kon-dor-sā].
- P. 60. "*Ensemble*" [on-som'ble]. French. The whole.
- P. 60. "*Il faut souffrir,*" etc. It is necessary to suffer in order to see comedy.
- P. 61. "*Mœurs.*" French. Manners, morals.
- P. 62. "Ultramontane." From two Latin words: *ultra*, beyond, and *montanus*, belonging to a mountain; beyond the mountain. In recent times it is applied specifically to those who hold extreme views in favor of the pope's absolute authority.
- P. 62. "*Zeitgeist*" [tsit'gist]. The time-spirit; the spirit or feeling which characterizes a period of time.
- P. 65. "Arc de l'Etoile" [ark de lā twāl']. Arch of the star. A triumphal arch 146 feet wide, 160 high, and 72 deep, at the head of the Champs Elysées, Paris.
- P. 68. "*La seule,*" etc. The only aristocracy, that is, the aristocracy of the talented.
- P. 69. "*Toujours justes,*" etc. Always just, or correct, in their beauty.
- P. 70. "Pailleron" [pā-ye-roŋ].
- P. 70. "Feuilletoniste." The writer for the *feuilleton*, the part of a French newspaper, usually the bottom, devoted to light literature.—"*Chronicqueur.*" The chronicler.
- P. 70. "*Primus inter pares.*" Latin. First among his peers.
- P. 71. "*Les gloires,*" etc. The glories of France.
- P. 71. "Littérateur." French. A man of letters.
- P. 71. "Girardin" [zhē-rār-dan'].
- P. 72. "Gradgrinds" [grād'grinds]. A retired hardware merchant who figures in Dickens' "Hard Times." He is utterly devoid of sentiment and extremely practical, a man who deals with hard facts.
- P. 73. "Hypertrophy." From two Greek words meaning *over* and *nourishment*: excessive growth or development.
- P. 75. "*En amateur.*" As an amateur; in an amateur way.
- P. 76. "*En connaisseur.*" As a connoisseur, one who knows.
- P. 76. "Chiron" [ki'ron]. According to Greek mythology, a centaur famous for his learning and his skill in hunting, music, medicine, and prophecy. He was an instructor of Achilles.
- P. 78. "*Insouciance.*" French. Heedlessness, unconcern.

- P. 80. "*Tiers État*" [tyār-zā-tā']. The Third Estate.
- P. 82. "*Partis pris*." Expedients formed.—"*A l'anglaise*." French. According to the English.
- P. 85. "*Persiflage*." French. Quizzing; a light, frivolous style of treating all subjects.
- P. 85. "*Mais, c'est*," etc. But it is so amusing.
- P. 86. "*Ennuyeux*." French. Tedious.
- P. 86. "*Voulu*." French, meaning literally, chosen; voluntary.
- P. 88. "*Terre-à-terre*." French. Prosy, commonplace.
- P. 89. "*L'art de*," etc. The art of losing one's self with method.
- P. 90. "*Nuances*." French. Shades.
- P. 90. "*Gautier*." [gō-tyā']. — "Musset." [mü-sā'].
- P. 91. "*La Raison*," etc. Reason is not prolix.
- P. 96. "About." [ä-bōō']. He died at Paris in 1885.—"*Le travail facile*," etc. The easy work, the rapid mind, and the sure hand, as to-day.
- P. 97. "*Et veut que*," etc. And wills that we be wise with discretion.
- P. 98. "*Les Américains*," etc. The Americans bungle in everything.
- P. 99. "*Gemüthlichkeit*." Good nature, kindness.
- P. 100. "Guérins" [gā-ran']. — "Joubert" [zhōō-bār']. French authors.
- P. 100. "*Agrements*." Pleasures.—"*En province*." In the country.
- P. 103. "*Quelque chose*," etc. Something from the old Europe.
- P. 103. "*Désinvolture*." Easy, graceful bearing.
- P. 103. "*Ménage*." Household.
- P. 104. "*La Santé avant tout*." Health first of all.
- P. 104. "*Danseuses*." Dancers.
- P. 105. "*Délicatesse*." Delicacy, nicety.
- P. 105. "*Oui, bonnes*," etc. Yes, good people, overlook it; he is, in effect, far too stupid or foolish.
- P. 107. "*Honneur*," etc. Honor, glory, excessively scrupulous, very honorable, extremely delicate.
- P. 107. "Augier" [ō-zhē-ā']. A dramatist.
- P. 108. "Una." A female character in Spenser's "*Faerie Queene*." As she wanders about from place to place she is followed by a lion which has been "tamed by her gentleness and purity."
- P. 110. "*Les deux*." The two towers of Notre Dame are the *H* of Hugo.—"*Vacquerie*" [vāk-rē]. A journalist and dramatist.—"*Claretie*" [klār-tē']. A novelist.
- P. 110. "*Le charme*," etc. Charm surpasses beauty.
- P. 111. "*A fortiori*." Latin. With stronger reason.
- P. 113. "Got" [gō]. An actor.
- P. 114. "*L'amour*." Love.—"*L'amitié*." Friendship.
- P. 115. "*Un paysage*," etc. A conventional landscape.
- P. 115. "*Recueilli*." Collected, calm.
- P. 116. "*Viollet-le-Duc*" [vyō-lā-le-dük'].
- P. 118. "*Emphase*." Bombast, fustian.
- P. 119. "*Quelle imprudence*," etc. What extreme imprudence.
- P. 119. "*Feu follet*." *Ignis fatuus*, the phosphorescent light which may be seen at night over marshy land; in a figurative sense, a misleading agency.
- P. 120. "*La grande endormeuse*." The great cajoler.
- P. 122. "Maupassant" [mō-pā-son']. He died at Paris in 1893.—"*Richepin*" [rēsh-pān'].
- P. 122. "*Grattez le Français*," etc. Scratch the Frenchman and you will find the Irishman.
- P. 123. Sieyès [sē-yās']. A statesman.
- P. 123. "*Jeunesse dorée*." Gilded youth.—"*Bourgeoise*." Citizen-like.
- P. 124. "*Épanchement*." Effusion.
- P. 124. "*Terre*." Rapture, animation.
- P. 126. "*Peut-il*," etc. Can he be the product of German soil!

REQUIRED READING IN "THE CHAUTAUQUAN"

- "A GROUP OF EMINENT FRENCH WOMEN."
1. "Rambouillet" [ron-boo-yā'].
 2. "*Savoir-faire*." Skill in acting; ability.
 3. "Corneille" [kor nāy'].
 4. "Plessis" [plā-sē'].
 5. "Richelieu" [rēsh'lēō].
 6. "Bossuet" [bo-sü-ā']. A French historian.
 7. "Voiture" [vō-wā tür] (1598-1648).
 8. "Angelique Paulet" [än zhā lēk pō-lā'].
 9. "Mlle. de Scudéry" [skü-dā-rē']. A novelist.
 10. "Sévigné" [sā-vēn-yā'].
 11. "Palais Royal" [pā lā' rwā yā']. A large building in Paris, quadrangular in shape, built by Richelieu in 1629.
 12. "Racine" [rā-sēn']. A dramatic poet.—
 13. "Boileau" [bwā-lō']. A French satirist.—"Retz" [rets or rās]. An author and politician.—
 14. "Molière" [mō-le-ēr]. Jean Baptiste Poquelin [pōk-lan']. A writer of dramas and comedies.—
 15. "Fontenelle." An author of miscellaneous writings.—
 16. "Bussy-Rabutin" [bü-sē-rā bü-tan']. A French soldier and author.—
 17. "Fouquet" [foo-kā']. — "La Fontaine." A noted author of fables.—
 18. "La Rochefoucauld" [lārōsh-foo-kō']. —
 19. "Coulanges" [koo-lonzh'].
 20. "Scarron" [skä-roŋ'] (1610-1660).
 21. "Françoise d'Aubigné" [fron-swā dō-ben-yā'].
 22. "Martinique" [mar-ti-nēk']. An island of the West Indies in the Lesser Antilles.

16. "Louis" [loo'f]. A French gold coin worth about four dollars.

17. "Francs." Silver coins worth about nineteen cents.

18. "Maintenon" [mǎn-te-nôn'].

19. "Navarre." A small kingdom composed of territory in what is now the southwestern part of France and the northern part of Spain.

20. "Saint-Cyr" [seer]. A town a few miles west of Versailles.

21. "Staël" [stāl].

22. "Mirabeau" [mē-rā-bō']. An orator and essayist.—"Chénier" [shā-nyá']. An eighteenth century poet.—"Barnave" [bār-nāve']. A revolutionist.

23. "Coppet" [kō-pā'].

24. "Sismondi" [sīs-mōn'dī]. A Swiss historian.—"Monti" [mon'tē]. A famous poet of Italy.—"Matthieu Montmorenci." He was elected a member of the French Academy in 1825.—"Schlegel" [shlā'gel]. A German literary critic.—"Prince Augustus" owned fine libraries and was much interested in literature and art.

25. "La Harpe" [lā-ārp'] (1754-1838). A Swiss politician.

26. "Abbaye aux Bois" [ā-bā'ō bwā'].

27. "Chateaubriand" [shā-tō-brē-on'] A celebrated statesman and author of France.

28. "Sainte-Beuve" [sant-buv']. A literary critic of France.—"Montalembert" [mōn-tā-lōn-bēr']. A French author.—"Ampère" [on-pēr']. A literary critic.—"Tocqueville" [tok'vil]. A noted statesman.—"Mérimée" [mā-rē-mā']. A French historian.—"Thierry" [tyā-rē']. A French historian.—"Humboldt." A German author and naturalist.—"Miss Berry." An English author.—"Maria Edgeworth." An English novelist.—"Sir Humphrey Davy." An English chemist.

29. "Rachel" [rā-shel']. A French actress.—"Garcia" [gār'sē-ā]. A Spanish musical instructor.—"Rubini" [roo-bē'nē]. An Italian vocalist.—"Lablache" [lā-blāsh']. An opera singer.

30. "Gérard" [zhā-rār']. A portrait painter.—"Delacroix" [de-lā-krwā']. A French artist.

31. *Beau monde*. The fashionable world.

32. "Marshal de Saxe" (1696-1750). A marshal of France.

33. "Choron" [sho-ron'] (1771-1834). An instructor and composer of music.

34. "Bonheur" [bō-nēr'].

35. "Luxembourg." A palace built in Paris during the seventeenth century for Maria de' Medici.

2. "Communard" [kōm'u nārd]. One who favors government by communes.

3. "Thiers" [tyār]. A French diplomat and historian. He died in 1877.

4. "Boulanger" [boo-lon-zhā'].

5. "*In absentia*." Latin. During his absence.

6. "Vaillant" [vā-yon'].

7. "*Scrutin de liste*" [skrü-tān'de list']. French. Balloting for a list of persons.

8. "*Scrutin d'arrondissement*" [d ā-rōn-dēs-mān']. Ballotting for the ward.

9. "Bourgeois" [boor-zhwā'].

"SUNDAY READINGS."

1. "Moravians." "The members of a Christian denomination which traces its origin to John Huss. . . . The Moravians are especially noted for their energy and success in missionary work."

2. "Inca Atahualpa" [ā-tā-wāl'pā]. One of the ancient sovereigns of Peru. In 1532, when captured by Pizarro, Atahualpa offered, as a ransom, to fill a room half full of gold, and it is said that an amount worth \$15,000,000 was collected. The Inca was tried for inciting an insurrection against the Spaniards and condemned to execution by strangling.

"CARDINAL RICHELIEU."

1. "*Château*" [shā-tō']. Castle, country-seat.

2. "States-General." A legislative assembly of France established by Philippe IV. The members represented the clergy, the nobles, and the middle class.

3. "*Cahiers*" [kā-yā']. Lists of grievances.

4. "Concini" [kōn-chē'nē].

5. "Dragonnades." The persecutions inflicted on the French Protestants by the dragoons under the reign of Louis XIV.

6. "Edict of Nantes." See "The Growth of the French Nation," page 179.

7. "League." The Holy League formed in 1576 to promote the interests of the Roman Catholics.

8. "Mazarin" [maz'a-rin]. He died in France in 1661. At the death of Richelieu he became prime minister.

9. "Bouillon" [boo-lyōn' or boo-yōn'].

10. "Fronde." See "The Growth of the French Nation," page 203.

11. "Franche-Comté" [fronsh kōn-tā']. "An ancient government of eastern France."—"Artois" [ār-twā']. An ancient province in the northern part of France.—"Roussillon" [roo-sē-yōn']. A former government of France on the Spanish frontier.

"THE FRENCH REPUBLIC."

1. "National Convention," etc. See "The Growth of the French Nation," pages 287, 295, and 306.

"THE GEOGRAPHICAL POSITION OF FRANCE."

1. "Vosges" [vōzh].

2. "Limoges" [lēmōzh'].

3. "Sèvres" [sāvr].
4. "Gobelin." These tapestries derive their name from the Gobelin brothers who discovered an improved scarlet dye and introduced the manufacture of the tapestries in the fifteenth century.

"THE LITERARY MOVEMENT IN FRANCE."

1. "De Amicis" [de ā-mē'-chēs].
2. "Auteuil" [ō-tēly'].
3. "Parnassians." The inhabitants of Mount Parnassus, a hill in Greece sacred to the Muses and said to be the home of poets.
4. "M. de Vogüé" [vō-gü-ā]. An archæologist.
5. "Vaudeville" [vōd'vīl]. A kind of gay, lively song, consisting of several couplets with a refrain, sung to a well-known air, and sometimes introduced into theatrical pieces.

"THE RISE AND FALL OF NEW FRANCE."

1. "Grand Banks." A plateau in the northern

Atlantic Ocean extending toward the east from Newfoundland.

2. "Voyageurs" [vwā-yā-zhēr']. A French word meaning travelers.
3. "Quebec Act." An act passed by the British Parliament in 1774, the purpose of which was to prevent the province of Quebec from uniting with the other colonies to demand independence.
4. "Verrazano" [ver-rāt-zā'nō].
5. "Coligny" [kō-lēn-yē' or kō-lēn'yē].
6. "Menendez" [ma-nēn'deth].
7. "Lachine" [lā-shēn'].
8. "Lallemand" [lāl-mōn'].—"Brébeuf" [brā-bēf'].
9. "Coureur de bois" [koo rēr'de bwā].
10. "Sault Ste. Marie" [sōō'sent mā'ri].
11. "Jogues" [zhōg].
12. "Groseilliers" [grō-zā-lyā'].
13. "Allouez" [āl-lōō-ā'].
14. "Cadillac" [kā-dē-yāk'].

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS.

ON THE C. L. S. C. TEXT-BOOKS.

"THE GROWTH OF THE FRENCH NATION."

1. Q. At the time of the Roman conquest by whom was France occupied? A. By numerous tribes of the Celtic race.
2. Q. How were these tribes governed? A. Some had kings, but in most the control of affairs was in the hands of a primitive aristocracy who ruled in a patriarchal way.
3. Q. With what event does the history of Gaul really begin? A. With the Roman conquest.
4. Q. What was the result of the Roman conquest? A. The language and institutions of the Celts as completely disappeared as if they had never existed, and Gaul became thoroughly Romanized.
5. Q. What was the foundation of the social distinctions which continued into modern history? A. The class distinctions which the Romans established.
6. Q. In the free population what were the three classes? A. The landed proprietors, or nobles, the curial class, and the mercantile and artisan class.
7. Q. How long did Gaul remain under Roman rule? A. More than four centuries.
8. Q. When does the real conquest of Gaul by the Franks begin? A. With the reign of Clovis in 481.
9. Q. What was the double labor which Clovis had to undertake in beginning the history of France as distinguished from that of Gaul? A. The terri-

tory had to be conquered and the nation united under the rule of one king.

10. Q. In the public life of the Franks what four facts were of especial moment for the future. A. (1) The kingship; (2) the *comitatus*; (3) the legislative and judicial organization; and (4) the division of the population into classes.
11. Q. What disposition did Clovis make of his kingdom? A. He divided it among his four sons.
12. Q. How did the immediate successors of Clovis enlarge the territory of the Franks? A. By conquest.
13. Q. With whom did the Carolingian family begin its permanent control of the Frankish government? A. Pippin the Younger, of Heristal.
14. Q. How did the new family obtain a strong hold upon the state? A. By their vast resources and by getting possession of the most important public offices.
15. Q. To whom did Pippin of Heristal leave the work of reconstruction? A. To his son, Charles Martel.
16. Q. Who completed the work of restoring the old Frankish dominion? A. Charles' son and successor, Pippin the Short.
17. Q. When, where, and by whom was Charlemagne crowned emperor of Rome. A. On Christmas Day of the year 800, in the church of St. Peter's, by the pope.
18. Q. What effective method of centralization did he introduce? A. He divided the empire into

two circuits each comprising a number of counties, and sent two officers, the *missi dominici*, to each of the circuits to see that the laws were enforced.

19. Q. When did France as a nation first come into existence? A. In the breaking up of Charlemagne's empire when he died.

20. Q. What treaty has had more to do with shaping the political geography of Western Europe than any other? A. The treaty of Verdun in 843.

21. Q. What deprived the Carolingian kings of the last vestiges of their authority? A. The growth of the feudal system.

22. Q. What social condition gave rise to the feudal institutions? A. The inability of the government to afford protection to its subjects.

23. Q. What led to the advancement of the Capetian family? A. The vigor and success with which they defended the valleys of the Loire and the Seine from the invasion of the Northmen.

24. Q. Who was the first king from this family? A. Hugh Capet.

25. Q. How did the feudal kings or lords regard him? A. As merely the highest suzerain of France.

26. Q. What was a formidable obstacle to the consolidation of France by the Capetians? A. The conquest of England by William the Conqueror.

27. Q. What class was at the head of the feudal society? A. The nobility.

28. Q. What movement assumed large proportions during the reign of Louis VI.? A. The movement of the cities to secure freedom of local government for themselves.

29. Q. What was the work of Philip Augustus? A. To increase the king's domain and to form a centralized and absolute monarchy.

30. Q. In order to do this with what power did he have to contend? A. With England.

31. Q. What institution of learning was organized under his reign? A. The University of Paris.

32. Q. Why did the barons oppose Louis IX.? A. They did not want a monarchy but desired a restoration of the old feudal independence and confusion.

33. Q. In what direction was the largest growth in Louis' reign? A. Toward a regular system of national courts.

34. Q. What were the successive steps in the development of the courts? A. Separating the different functions from one another in the business of the court; division of the courts into separate bodies; and the establishment of the French Parlement.

35. Q. Who was the first absolute king in the modern sense? A. Philip IV.

36. Q. For what is his reign especially distinguished? A. For the organization of a national financial system.

37. Q. How did the king secure the support of all classes in his resistance to the papal claims? A. He called into existence the Estates-General.

"FRENCH TRAITS."

1. Q. How is the part France once played in the drama of civilization attested? A. By some of the noblest monuments in the world.

2. Q. In progressive movements what rank has France taken? A. France has almost invariably been in the lead.

3. Q. What instinct of human nature has France incarnated from the first? A. The social instinct.

4. Q. Of what were the cathedrals the product? A. Of a spirit partly ecclesiastical, partly secular, but always social.

5. Q. Of what struggle do they mark a phase? A. Of the struggle of solidarity with anarchic forces.

6. Q. What was the great work of the Reformation? A. To quicken the sense of personal responsibility by awakening the conscience.

7. Q. What has been the predominant influence of the Catholic Church? A. To enforce the sense of social interdependence among men, and to destroy individualism by organizing and systematizing.

8. Q. What has been the indirect influence of Catholicism? A. Toward social expansion.

9. Q. As a result in great part of these influences, what kind of a people constitute the French nation? A. People intensely organic and *solidaire* and a people possessed of the epicurean rather than the ascetic ideal in morals.

10. Q. How do the French regard individuals and character? A. Individuals as of less import than the relations between them, and with them character counts less than capacity.

11. Q. In what way are the great Frenchmen usually great? A. On their human and social sides, by distinction rather than by energy.

12. Q. In France what is considered a principal part of the youth's equipment for his journey through life? A. His social capacity.

13. Q. What sentiment can be read in the expression and demeanor of almost every Frenchman? A. The sentiment of fraternity.

14. Q. What takes the place of religion in France? A. Patriotism.

15. Q. What sentiment is a direct derivative of the social instinct? A. The sentiment of morality.

16. Q. Of what nature is French morality? A. It is rather a social than an individual force.

17. Q. In what is the key to its nature found? A. In the substitution of honor for duty as a main-spring of action and a regulator of conduct.

18. Q. What do the French mean by character? A. Temperament, disposition, energy, and will.

19. Q. How do they regard gayety? A. As a necessity of mental health and a kind of goodness.
20. Q. What is the special distinction of the French nation? A. Its highly developed intelligence.
21. Q. What is the result of their confidence in the efficacy of their intelligence? A. It makes them swift to execute their ideas and anxious to press and impose them.
22. Q. Taken in a large sense, who are the heroes of French society? A. Men who have excelled in some intellectual field.
23. Q. What is a characteristic of the French intelligence? A. It seems to have almost no frivolous side.
24. Q. To what is the French lack of sympathy for our humor probably due? A. To French dislike of, and perplexity in the presence of, whatever is thoroughly fantastic, unscrupulously exaggerated, and willfully obscure.
25. Q. Why is the French language the language of diplomacy? A. Because of the clearness of the language and of French preponderance in European affairs.
26. Q. What is one of the most conspicuous of their national traits? A. The universal good sense.
27. Q. What is the almost universal rule in speech, demeanor, taste, and habits? A. Temperance.
28. Q. What is the one inevitable concomitant of the wide diffusion of good sense? A. A corresponding deficiency of sentiment.
29. Q. Where do the French show this lack of sentiment? A. In every avocation—in the home, on the stage, in their contemplation of nature, in art, and in poetry.
30. Q. For what is this lack of sentiment directly responsible? A. For that intrusion of philosophy into the domain of art which is a French eccentricity.

THE QUESTION TABLE.

ANSWERS IN NEXT NUMBER.

FRENCH LITERATURE.—I.

1. What was the earliest form which finished literature took in France?
2. What is a "*chanson de geste*"?
3. In what century did it first appear?
4. For how long did this style of writing continue?
5. What war is described in the "*Chanson de Roland*"?
6. In what other languages has the story of Roland been told?
7. Which of Tennyson's poems is taken from the romance of "*Percevale*"?
8. What early French epic is founded on some of *Æsop's Fables*.
9. What early French allegory was begun by one author and finished by another?
10. By what famous English poet was this allegory translated?

FRENCH HISTORY.—I.

1. At the beginning of history among how many tribes was Gaul divided?
2. What people did the Celts find established in Gaul? What language did they speak? Where is that language still spoken?
3. When Cæsar entered Gaul what two classes of men were greatly honored? What was the condition of the masses?
4. How long was Cæsar engaged in the conquest of Gaul?
5. What industries were practiced by the Gauls?
6. When was Marseilles founded?
7. Why was Rome so willing to aid the Greeks of Massilia against the attacks of the neighboring tribes?
8. Who led the forces against Attila in the battle of Châlons?
9. What was the religion of the Franks?
10. What caused a spirit of political opposition between Austrasia and Neustria?

ASTRONOMY.—I.

1. How does the science of astronomy compare in age with other sciences?
2. What ancient people are known to have studied astronomy before the beginning of the Christian era?
3. The emperor of what country claims a celestial ancestry? By what name does he call himself?
4. To whom belongs the honor of raising astronomy to the dignity of a science?
5. What is the altitude of the celestial pole?
6. Is there any star situated exactly at the celestial pole?
7. How far is Polaris from the pole?
8. What is meant by the circle of perpetual apparition?
9. When and by whom was the earliest Greek school of astronomy founded?
10. What planets were mentioned in the ancient systems of astronomy?

CURRENT EVENTS.—I.

1. To whom was the title cardinal originally applied? What is the insignia of the cardinal?
2. Who was the first American cardinal?
3. When and where was Mgr. Satolli invested with the biretta?
4. Who is Italy's ambassador to the United States?
5. Upon what occasion previous to the recent lynching in Louisiana was the United States called upon to pay an indemnity to the Italian government?

6. What place in the Cabinet was left vacant by Hoke Smith's resignation? In which of the Cabinet offices have there been two incumbents during the present administration?
7. What is the prevailing religion in the island of Crete?
8. By whom was Crete originally settled?
9. What name did Homer give to the island and why?
10. By what authority does Great Britain assume the right to intervene in the affairs in Zanzibar?

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1882-1900.

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TO THE CLASS OF 1900,

Greeting:—Let us imagine a cordial hand-shake in the name of Chautauqua and of our Literary and Scientific Circle. Some of us have already looked each other in the face and literally begun to walk together the path which shall lead through the

golden archway in 1900. Our name came to us naturally. It is most appropriate that the last class to graduate in the nineteenth century should carry over into the future the name of the most wonderful hundred years of time—a century resplendent with the names of great men. Therefore our chosen name is "The Nineteenth Century Class." We came also naturally by our motto. We felt it must embody the great ideas which Chautauqua represents, and it came into our mind and heart borne upon these tides and whispered through these stately groves: "Faith in the God of truth; hope for the unfolding centuries; charity toward all endeavor." It expresses the religion, the optimism, and the helpful inspiration of Chautauqua which is itself the peculiar product of the passing century. Then came the question of the emblem, and the evergreen carried the day—not the evergreen which trails but the evergreen of the pine tree, the symbol of the abiding quality of the great principles of our motto. Upon our class pin shall be a branch of the pine. Upon our banner shall be seen the pine tree itself, emblem of unity and strength and eternity. These lines are written on the last day of the Chautauqua season of 1896. The members of our new class who have lingered here and who are gathered together for a few parting moments greet our fellow-classmates who have already joined us, and those who shall join us, across the borders of states, over the mountain ranges and the waters which may divide us. We bid you Godspeed in the work of the four years. We bid you to gather circles, to persevere in the readings, to meet us at Chautauqua when it is possible, above all to continue steadfast to the end of the course and march with us through the golden gate, to the Hall in the Grove, and into the years that are to be.

Very faithfully yours,

Nathaniel I. Rubinkans.

GRADUATE CLASSES.

At the opening of a new year graduates are reminded that the special course on Current History and Opinion, which has proved both profitable and popular, will be continued. This course enables graduates to keep in touch with the best thought of the times and at the same time pursue other lines of study if they feel so disposed. The Current History course includes the department of that title in THE CHAUTAUQUAN and Adams' "The Growth of the French Nation." The fifty-cent fee enrolls a member and supplies him with the necessary memoranda.

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"Ubi mel, ibi apes."

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THE decennial of the Class of '86 was celebrated at Chautauqua, August 18. Appropriate addresses were made and a number of trees which the class had planted were presented to Mr. Lewis Miller, president of the Assembly.

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"Press on, reaching after those things which are before."

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"Step by step we gain the heights."

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"From height to height."

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CLASS SYMBOL—A HATCHET.

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LEAGUE OF THE ROUND TABLE.

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C. L. S. C. MOTTOES.

"We Study the Word and the Works of God."

"Let us Keep our Heavenly Father in the Midst."

"Never be Discouraged."

C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS.

OPENING DAY—October 1.

BRYANT DAY—November, second Sunday.

MILTON DAY—December 9.

COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.

LANIER DAY—February 3.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.

LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.

SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.

ADDISON DAY—May 1.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.

INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Saturday after first Tuesday.

ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first Tuesday.

SPECIAL MEMORIAL DAYS FOR 1896-97.

CHARLEMAGNE—October 30.

"SAINT LOUIS"—November 30.

JOAN OF ARC—December 4.

RICHIEU—January 4.

HOMER—February 12.

SOCRATES—March 5.

EPAMINONDAS—April 24.

PHIDIAS—May 24.

THE past year has been a good one among the circles; results of real value have been achieved, but the future holds still better things in store. Let every circle trim its lamp early, and let the thousand Chautauqua circles now active stimulate the organization of yet another thousand. Send for the New Chautauqua Vesper Service to the central office, let a rally be held in every community, and the French-Greek year which has already proved most attractive to the advance guard of 1900 will win many more adherents. A word to the circles about their graduates: Every community which has a half dozen C. L. S. C. graduates should hold a yearly graduate meeting, to consider how their influence can best be exerted for Chautauqua, and to welcome any members of the graduating class. In many communities this yearly meeting of the graduates is given a decided social character and serves as a stimulus to many undergraduates to finish the course. The graduates may do much to establish the C. L. S. C. work on a sure basis and aid in extending its influence.

SOUTH AMERICA.—Through the influence of the director of the national normal school at Rosario an enthusiastic C. L. S. C. has just been organized in that place. The membership already numbers twenty.

NOVA SCOTIA.—The Eclectic Circle after encountering many obstacles has completed the course. The weekly meetings have been interesting and instructive. The secretary says: "I am sorry the four years' work is done; it has been the brightest part of my life. From narrow views my vision has been enlarged, and the whole course has been the means of stirring within me an ambition beyond expression, and of making a once discontented life contented."

VERMONT.—The circle at Randolph is composed of strong, enthusiastic members, most of whom are

graduates. The meetings of the year have been very profitable and closed with a special program at the home of one of the members, after which light refreshments were served. The Chautauqua salute, given in honor of the host and hostess, testified to the loyalty and good will of all present.

MASSACHUSETTS.—A most instructive and entertaining program for "Sunnyside Readings" was carried out by the circle at Harvard during the months of July and August. Among the topics for discussion were "The Town," "Mary Carpenter and Her Work," and "Living Sovereigns."

CONNECTICUT.—The Hawthorne Circle, of Wapping, enlivened the summer months with picnics and a banquet at the home of one of its members. Out of eighteen members, seven took their diplomas at Laurel Park, Mass., where the circle had assisted in erecting one of the public buildings.

NEW YORK.—The Canandaigua Circle has just closed the tenth year of its existence. During this time more than one hundred have been enrolled as members, and of the thirty-two who joined at its organization four still add inspiration to the circle. —The Janes Circle, of Brooklyn, recently gave a novel and instructive entertainment in the parlors of Janes Church. The parlors were decorated with emblems, pictures, books, and various other things, each representing a city or village in the United States. Pencils and paper were provided and the one who correctly interpreted the largest number of emblems was awarded a prize. Among the selected places were Fernleaf, Orange, Marrowbone, Clearwater, and Little Silver. —A very delightful literary and musical program marked the close of a year's work at Halls. They have a membership of thirty-seven and great interest is manifested in the circle, with indications that next year will prove as successful as the two previous years of its existence have been. —At the June quarterly meeting

of the Syracuse C. L. S. C. Alumni Association was read an interesting report of the work of that organization from its beginning to the present time. With eight graduates now on the list an effort is being made to add still more and also to resurrect the central circle, the first local circle ever formed. —At the closing session of the Brooklyn Alumni Association an informal program was carried out in which each member was called upon to say something original along the line of his or her particular accomplishment. The person not responding was fined ten cents. Thus a very instructive and pleasant evening was passed. —The Epworth Circle gave a unique entertainment at the home of one of the members in honor of the graduating class of '96. After a literary and musical program had been enjoyed a golden gate festooned with daisies was disclosed. The graduates formed in line and marched to the gate amid the waving of handkerchiefs, where the messenger awaited them. After the greeting and responsive reading the gate was opened and the class passed through, singing the class song. An address of welcome was made and each member presented with a bunch of forget-me-nots. The class took their diplomas at Buffalo, where they enrolled in the Society of the Hall in the Grove. —With its wonted enthusiasm and spirit in arranging delightful outings the Brooklyn Chautauqua Union provided several rare treats for its members and their friends during the summer. The eighth annual moonlight excursion on the Hudson was held on the afternoon and evening of June 27. Two boats were chartered and about four thousand people availed themselves of the ride to Iona Island, where eighteen salutes were fired in honor of the graduating classes. In the after cabin of the steamer *Grand Republic* music and an address by the president of the union were enjoyed by the excursionists. Among the circles represented were the Una, Beach, Y. M. C. A., Round Table, and Centenary Epworth League Chautauqua Circles. —The Chautauqua Lake Excursion, on August 12, by the B. C. U. and City and Island Methodist, was well attended, giving many an opportunity to be present on Recognition Day. —Chautauqua Day was celebrated at Prohibition Park, Staten Island, under the auspices of the B. C. U. and the Hurlburt Circle. Music was furnished by the Hurlburt Circle. —A new circle is reported from Poughkeepsie. —The Holley Circle has formed an enthusiastic alumni association.

NEW JERSEY.—On the evening of June 4 the Beach Circle of Jersey City entertained all the C. L. S. C.'s in the county in the parlors of the West-Side Avenue Methodist Church. The program consisted of essays and addresses interspersed with music, and ended with a social and refresh-

ments. —Many New Jersey Chautauquans attended Recognition Day at Ocean Grove, where a goodly number of diplomas were awarded to graduates of this state. —The Centenary Epworth League Chautauqua Circle has not confined itself entirely to the C. L. S. C. text-books, but the year has been devoted to a review of American history which has proved of great benefit to all. —A social session of the Morgan Chautauqua Circle was held in July at the home of the president. The readings have been completed and the second season of the circle successfully closed. This is the only circle in the county composed exclusively of ladies. —The Belvidere Circle has devoted every alternate meeting to a parlor lecture with musical selections. This feature has greatly increased the attendance and interest of the circle. —A joint reception and social was enjoyed by the members of the Culver Circle at Lafayette at the last meeting of the year. The chief object, that of passing a pleasant evening, was accomplished, and all departed well satisfied with the year's work.

PENNSYLVANIA.—The Circle at Mifflinton, consisting of five ladies, joined the ranks of the graduates at Lake Chautauqua. At the annual banquet a most interesting program was furnished, and the sumptuous banquet was interspersed with toasts. —A dainty hand-painted souvenir program is received from Coudersport, with a report of the annual banquet. Like many of our most prosperous circles, this one is composed entirely of ladies. At the beginning of the year sides had been chosen with the understanding that the side having the best record for attendance, performance of parts, etc., at the end of the year was to furnish the "feast of reason and flow of soul," while the vanquished sisters must look after the more material things of the banquet. The program furnished by the victorious was of extraordinary merit. The parlors offered for the occasion were decorated with patriotic emblems. A sumptuous banquet was served by twelve juniors, of whom their elders are justly proud, and toasts were responded to. —The members of the Orient Circle finished the course with seven out of the original sixteen. Meeting every alternate Monday, they have varied their style of entertainment by the study of noted authors. At the last meeting a tribute to the Class of '96 was read by the composer, the son of one of the members, and was received with great appreciation by all present. —The Columbia Circle of Philadelphia send an interesting program, composed chiefly of topics suggested in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*. —Lincoln Day was appropriately celebrated by the Chautauquans at Homestead. —The Pansy Circle of Landisville has found its first year most helpful and enjoyable and looks forward with pleasure to the next year of study. —An open

meeting of the White Rock Circle at Ft. Loudon was held at the residence of the vice president on June 26. The beautifully decorated parlor was filled with members of the circle and their invited guests, who listened to a literary and musical program. Refreshments were served and the remainder of the evening was spent in playing games and in conversation.—The Chautauquans of Parnassus enjoyed an old-fashioned spelling-bee at the close of one of the meetings. The words were the same as those given at Chautauqua last year. When the end of the list was reached only two of the contestants remained standing. The closing program was a literary treat which will long be remembered by all.

KENTUCKY.—The circle at Mt. Sterling sends names of four members for enrollment.

ALABAMA.—Six faithful workers at Shelby are enrolled with the class of '98. An Alabama program of literary and musical numbers furnished an attractive entertainment recently.—“The Jones Circle at Talladega,” the scribe says, “is one of the best to be found anywhere, no one ever shirking his duty,” and the excellent service rendered throughout the Assembly in preparation for special days testifies to this fact.

MISSISSIPPI.—For two years the Chautauquans at Aberdeen have worked faithfully in the course and are making preparation for another instructive year of study.

TEXAS.—The West Paris Circle was organized in October, 1894, and with six active workers is now in a very prosperous condition.

INDIAN TERRITORY.—Notwithstanding the severe storms of the winter the weekly meetings of the Chickasaw Circle at Ardmore have been exceptionally well attended. The course of study has been followed almost entirely, with the additional feature of five-minute talks by each member, either on a given subject or on the text-book under perusal. These exercises were of untold benefit.

ILLINOIS.—The interest of the Moline Circle is manifested by a very urgent letter asking for a good patriotic program to be used at an early date.—The secretary of the circle at Carlinville says: “Several members of our circle, Class of '95, have read this year, as post-graduate work, the readings for the American year, as we can never learn too much of our country. Next year we may take up some special course—at least I hope so. All of our members greatly enjoy the C. L. S. C. work.”

MICHIGAN.—The club at Benton Harbor is limited to twenty-four members. This is done in order that the meetings may be held at the different houses and also that the members may be more easily entertained. The circle wishes success to the C. L. S. C. and is well pleased with the prospect of the French-Greek year. At one of their

meetings the clergymen of the city were invited. The very interesting program caused the reverend gentlemen to censure the ladies for excluding the men from their gatherings. The club now have the matter under consideration and may admit the sterner sex to their charmed circle. At the last meeting of the year they decided to read Carlyle's “French Revolution” preparatory to the French-Greek year.

IOWA.—A circle was recently organized at Blairs-town, all of whom enjoy the studies very much. The meetings are held at the houses of the members in alphabetical order.—The circle at Ladora sends seven names for enrollment, six in the Class of '98 and one in the Class of '99.—Some valuable suggestions for study come from the Chautauquans at Humboldt. They choose a teacher or leader for each branch of study, and the lesson is conducted as a regular school recitation. After several years of experience they find this method very satisfactory for getting the most out of the subjects studied. A course of lectures given during the winter proved of benefit to the members and also to the people of the town.

MISSOURI.—The West Plains Circle sends report of good work done, and has a bright outlook for next year. The program for the last meeting was of a literary character, followed by delectable refreshments.—The Chillicothe Circle has elected officers for the ensuing year and is ready to begin on the French-Greek year, with the enthusiasm which characterizes all true Chautauquans.—Lamar has a large and progressive circle. They send four names for enrollment, three in the Class of '98 and one for '99.

KANSAS.—The College Hill Circle has just closed its fifth year. The membership numbers seventeen, all ladies, who meet Monday afternoons, and follow the program as outlined in THE CHAUTAUQUAN. One of the most enthusiastic members of this circle is a last year's graduate. The president, who took her diploma at Winfield this summer, is sixty-five years old.—A most interesting program was carried out by the members of the Washington Circle to close the year's study.

NEBRASKA.—The annual banquet of the Fremont Circle was held at Windsor Hotel, June 1. A unique souvenir program prepared shows that the physical and mental needs were well provided for. The average attendance of this circle is twenty. The excellent condition of the club is largely due to the prompt and untiring efforts of the president.

CALIFORNIA.—The circle at Los Angeles sends fifteen names for enrollment. The majority of the circle will graduate next year; two are making up the Roman year in order to receive their diplomas with the class.

MINNESOTA.—The scribe at Duluth sends the

following report: "Athene Circle, connected with the First M. E. Church at Duluth, observed the closing of the American year in a fitting manner. The entertainment was entitled 'An American Evening.' One feature was an art loan exhibition. The walls of the social rooms of the church were hung with pictures, comprising American scenic views, historical events, and portraits of leading Americans. The national colors and a profusion of flags formed the decorations. About seven hundred people were present." Among the addresses given was one on "Bishop Vincent, the Founder of

the People's University." The art exhibition continued two days after the entertainment. The outlook is very favorable for a large, flourishing circle next year.—A class of eleven active and interested members reports from Barrett. It was organized in January and has finished the entire work of the year. They are called the Pomme de Terre River Circle, after the river which flows by the village. Each member in turn makes out the program for the weekly meetings. They promise to be a valuable addition to the corps of Chautauqua workers.

THE SUMMER ASSEMBLIES FOR 1896.

CHAUTAUQUA, More than four centuries ago

NEW YORK. a Spanish explorer left his native country in search of the fountain of eternal youth. Could he to-day have looked in upon Chautauqua he would have been amply rewarded, for the spirit of perpetual youth seems to pervade the atmosphere of everything which has to do with this Assembly. It is here that the birds sing sweetest, the flowers bloom brightest, and the glint of the warm summer sun through the nodding branches of the green-clad forest awakes in each inhabitant of the "Student City" a responsive feeling of joyousness and good cheer which he communicates to every one about him.

Everything seemed at its best. The cottages, the college buildings, the Assembly halls, the class buildings—all were in their most attractive attire. The excellent walks begun some time ago have been extended, the model system of sewerage was in excellent working order, and the municipal code peculiar to Chautauqua twenty-two years ago continued to help in upholding the aims and objects of Chautauqua. The first steps were taken toward the visible consummation of a plan long cherished by Chancellor Vincent. The place chosen for "The Hall of the Christ" is Academia Grove, north of Normal Hall, and on August 18 the site was dedicated with appropriate and impressive ceremonies. President Miller, Chancellor Vincent, Dr. W. R. Harper, and others took part in the exercises.

In a social way there was more gayety at Chautauqua this year than ever before. The receptions and social gatherings which are but an outgrowth of the C. L. S. C. spirit have increased in number and many were the occasions when visitors could enjoy the social cheer and cordiality of the Chautauqua population. Everything to interest, refresh, and edify is the principle on which the program for this year was founded, and trite as it may sound the truth is expressed when we say that never before in the history of the Assembly was there offered

to the people in a single season such a fine array of things musical, literary, artistic, and scientific. The music, which was unusually fine and artistic, was a source of much delight. Rogers' Orchestra, which has been increased to sixteen pieces, rendered music of a higher order than ever before. The choir, led by Dr. H. R. Palmer, was also a most important musical factor, and whenever a concert was announced under the direction of Chautauqua's most highly capable chorister an immense audience was sure to greet him. Soloists of rare talent were there. Mrs. J. Otis Huff, Madame Decca, Mr. Homer Moore, and Mr. Whitney Tew formed a quartet of unusual strength and excellence. Many of the lectures and entertainments were on a line with the C. L. S. C. work for the coming year. Interesting courses of lectures on Greek life, French history, and literature were delivered by Prof. John Williams White, Prof. Shailer Matthews, Roberts Harper, and Leon H. Vincent. Art, literature, and social life furnished many subjects for lectures and entertainments, which were treated by master minds in a masterful way. The interests of higher education were promoted by attractive and interesting conferences, discussions, and lectures.

The Collegiate Department under the principalship of President Harper is an admirably organized institution of learning with a faculty of fifty-six highly cultured men and women from the best institutions of learning in the country. The national character of the Chautauqua System of Education becomes more marked each year. This season almost every state in the Union was represented by its students, many of whom were from the South. A wider range of studies was offered this year in its courses and the new students, the new classes, and the new subjects combined to arouse an enthusiasm noticeable in every class, school, and lecture room. The subject specially emphasized at the session just closed was pedagogy. That this met the demands of educationalists is evident from the fact that the

attendance was double that of last year, inspiration being given to teachers of all grades from thirty-two different states, Canada and Alaska. The department of Art, which is now a regularly organized school, received an unusual amount of attention. By the presence and work of Mr. A. T. Van Laer and Mr. H. R. Poore, of New York, this subject was given a great impetus. In Higgins Memorial a picture gallery was opened. The collection included original drawings by some of the best illustrators in the country, paintings in oil and water-colors, china painting, and tapestry work, a large part of which was the work of the able instructors in this department.

But the C. L. S. C. is the nucleus from which this system of education started. The invitations sent to the different circles throughout the country brought together, on the C. L. S. C. Rallying Day, representatives of two thousand active members. After the reception of the delegates by Miss Kate F. Kimball, executive secretary of the C. L. S. C., a public meeting was held in the Hall in the Grove at which Chancellor Vincent presided. Words of greeting were spoken by Dr. T. L. Flood, editor of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*, Mr. A. M. Martin, general secretary of the C. L. S. C., Miss Kimball, President Lewis Miller, and delegates from several circles in the United States and from one in South Africa. The principal address of the day was by Dr. F. W. Gunsaulus, the subject of whose lecture was "Oliver Cromwell." During the season many topics of interest pertaining to the circle were discussed at the Councils and Round Tables. But the crowning day of all was Recognition Day, when for the fourteenth time were repeated the exercises inaugurated in 1882, when "The Pioneers" proudly marched through the golden gate. "The Truth Seekers," who received their diplomas on August 19, swell the number of C. L. S. C. graduates to more than forty thousand, and the ranks of the active workers were greatly increased by the large enrollment for the class of 1900. The orator of the day was President Charles W. Eliot, of Harvard University, a summary of whose address is published in this number of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*. Unusual activity was displayed in the club life of the Assembly as well as in every other department, and the many thousand visitors to this mother Assembly, children as well as older people, found that ample provision had been made for amusement and recreation as well as for mere intellectual improvement.

ACTON PARK, In spite of the stormy weather which prevented many from attendance, Chautauqua Day was celebrated at Acton Park Assembly with appropriate exercises and an appreciative audience gathered to listen to an address by the Rev. J. W. Maxwell, whose topic was "We Study the Word and the Works of God."

The Rev. L. L. Coultas, of Indianapolis, gave an able address in the afternoon. The Round Table exercises immediately following were conducted by Dr. Robinson.

ASHLAND, Though the hard times reduced **OREGON.** the attendance at the Southern Oregon Chautauqua the excellence of the program offered was not affected by the financial depression. Prof. D. P. Hughes, one of the ablest musical directors on the Pacific coast, had charge of the musical department and arranged a closing concert which was unsurpassed by any previous effort.

Excellent work was done in the W. C. T. U. school of methods under the charge of Mrs. L. H. Addition, the state organizer and national lecturer.

More successful than ever before were the Round Table meetings, directed by Mr. C. A. Hitchcock, at which subjects of interest, including the C. L. S. C. course of study, were discussed. The prospects for new members of the circle in that region are reported as being good.

BETHESDA, With a larger continued attendance **OHIO.** than ever before the Epworth Park Assembly was able to do more and better work along all lines than in previous years.

Large classes of enthusiastic students received instruction in music, physical culture, elocution, and oratory, from Prof. Clement B. Shaw, of Chicago, and Miss Blanche Potter, of Scio College.

The lecture talent employed was of the best. Among those who graced the platform were Dr. T. DeWitt Talmage, Dr. A. W. Lamar, Dr. M. M. Parkhurst, Dr. O. W. Holmes, Dr. S. P. Leland, and the Rev. Alfred Walls.

On Recognition Day the regular service was used and ten persons of different classes were publicly recognized. Addresses were made by Dr. Parkhurst, Prof. W. H. Dana, and Dr. D. C. Osborne.

CLARION, From the Clarion As-
STRATTONVILLE, PA. sembly, of which the Rev. F. H. Beck, D.D., is the president and superintendent of instruction, come reports of an interesting and profitable session, though the attendance was not so good as last year.

Of the departments of instruction arranged for the students those of elocution and physical culture were especially valuable. Some of the Round Tables were conducted by Miss Kate Kimball, who gave excellent papers setting forth the value of the C. L. S. C. course for 1896-97.

On Recognition Day the seven C. L. S. C. graduates had the pleasure of listening to Miss Kate Kimball, who was the chief speaker. The fine program arranged for the day resulted in a beautiful service worthy of the occasion, and a class for 1900 was organized.

CRETE ASSEMBLY, Amid picturesque surroundings and delightful shade the Crete Chautauqua Assembly held a most successful session on the Assembly grounds, which include more than a hundred acres along the Big Blue River.

The attendance was double that of any previous year and great interest was manifested in the educational departments. A senior normal course on the life of Christ was conducted by the Rev. J. D. Stewart, the children's class was under the charge of Mrs. L. S. Corey, and the W. C. T. U. school of methods was conducted by Mrs. S. M. Walker.

A C. L. S. C. Rally Day was observed, which, with the Round Tables and Love Feasts, resulted in the formation of a new class.

Recognition Day was marked by the annual procession, passing through the gate, and conferring diplomas on nine graduates. The principal address was delivered by Prof. Edward H. Griggs, of Leland Stanford Junior University.

CRYSTAL SPRINGS, The management of the **MISSISSIPPI.** Mississippi Chautauqua Assembly are to be congratulated on their success in preparing a program to attract twice the number of people that assembled at the first session.

No graduates were present on Recognition Day but readers were enrolled in the class of 1900.

In the educational line the department of scientific methods of Bible study was conducted by Dr. Alfred A. Wright, one of the leading platform speakers. Other speakers present were Gen. J. B. Gordon, Prof. Charles Lane, the Rev. Dr. Matthews, and Prof. A. H. Merrell.

CUMBERLAND VALLEY, "Heavy rains almost **PENNSYLVANIA.** every day interfered somewhat with the attendance," is the report which comes from the Cumberland Valley Sabbath School Assembly.

At the Recognition Day exercises two graduates received diplomas and Dr. E. T. Jeffers and Hon. Henry Houck were the orators.

The Rev. E. S. Bowman had charge of the C. L. S. C. department, in which normal and scientific instruction was given on subjects particularly interesting to readers and the value of the C. L. S. C. course of reading was presented to the people. Much interest in the work was the result.

A general program in which able speakers participated furnished profitable entertainment to appreciative audiences.

DEMOREST, The extensive preparations made **GEORGIA.** by the management of the Northeast Georgia Chautauqua for entertainment, instruction, and recreation deserved a better patronage than it received from the local friends of education.

Every day was a special day, but Thursday, July

30, is especially marked as being the best during the session. Two C. L. S. C. graduates received public recognition on that date, and Frank T. Murray, A.B., of Northwestern University, delivered the Recognition Day address. The day closed with a reception and park illumination.

Miss Bunnie Love, who is a skilled worker in the C. L. S. C. department, conducted unusually interesting Round Tables, which were well attended.

Concerts, illustrated lectures, and illustrated song services helped to make a program full of variety and interest.

DES MOINES, The Midland Chautauqua Assembly of Des Moines, Iowa, successor to the Iowa Chautauqua of Colfax, Iowa, enjoyed this season an unprecedented success intellectually, socially, and financially. The attendance is reported to have been larger than ever before and far the largest of any Assembly in the vicinity.

Many well-known names appeared on the list of speakers, among whom were Gen. John B. Gordon, Dr. Frank W. Gunsaulus, President William H. Crawford, and Dr. B. T. Vincent. Recognition Day was fittingly observed and an earnest address was delivered by the field secretary, the Rev. George M. Brown. Thirty-seven diplomas were delivered and fifty-seven passed the gate, which was a facsimile of the one at Chautauqua. A large number of names were enlisted for the Class of 1900.

Much enthusiasm was aroused at the Round Tables, the attendance being so large it was necessary to hold the meetings in the auditorium.

Many who were present not being in the ranks of the great Chautauqua army, special emphasis was put on the advantages of C. L. S. C. work, the result being the organization of a local union for Des Moines.

DETROIT LAKE, At the Detroit Lake Inter-MINNESOTA. state Summer Assembly lectures were delivered by Dr. Hamilton W. Spence, Prof. Magunnson, Lieutenant-Governor Worst, of North Dakota, Hon. J. M. De Vine, and Prof. E. S. Keene. On Recognition Day Dr. J. F. Dudley delivered an address to an audience of fair size. In the educational department the gymnasium work was conducted by Mr. and Mrs. W. H. Day, and the Bible study by Mr. M. B. Van Vranken.

DEVIL'S LAKE, The most successful and **NORTH DAKOTA.** entertaining session of Devil's Lake Assembly closed with appropriate exercises on July 13.

The lectures, concerts, receptions, excursions, and fireworks furnished a round of pleasures and entertainments to many thousand people.

The growing interest in the C. L. S. C. brought many people together on Recognition Day, when Dr. George M. Brown and others delivered addresses. Though there were no graduates at this

Assembly a Nineteenth Century Class was organized as a result of effective Round Table work.

The summer school was conducted by the faculty of the Grand Forks College, a teaching force of talented specialists.

Bible readings by Dr. Williamson, lectures on public speaking by Dr. George K. Morris, the presence of the Fort Totten Indian School, and the music by the native Indian Band are some of the special features which mark the season's entertainment.

FRYEBURG, Through the efforts of the Rev.

MAINE. George D. Lindsay, the president and superintendent of instruction of the Northern New England Sunday-school Assembly and Maine Chautauqua Union, an excellent program was offered to the public at the recent session of the Assembly. The platform was occupied by Miss Charlotte Thorndike Sibley, Miss Belle Kearney, Miss Shirley, F. R. Roberson, the Rev. J. J. Lewis, Congressman Milliken of Maine, and others of marked ability.

Eleven departments of instruction conducted by eminent educators were offered to students. The Woman's Club meetings attracted large audiences to hear representative women from various parts of the state.

On Recognition Day all Chautauquans joined the procession and witnessed the exercises at the golden gate, through which three graduates passed. The principal address was delivered by Miss Charlotte Thorndike Sibley, the well-known scholar, traveler, and lecturer. For the Class of 1900 but a small number registered.

HEDDING, Music has always been a special feature of the Hedding Chautauqua Assembly, and this year the concerts surpassed anything in this line ever before given here. The director of the great chorus, Mr. W. E. Thomas, was aided by an orchestra of twenty pieces, soloists, and readers of noted ability.

Among the well-known lecturers were Dr. W. H. Milburn, Dr. S. F. Upham, Dr. M. D. D. Kneeland, Hezekiah Butterworth, and F. R. Roberson.

The general public was much interested in G. A. R. Day and the usual services held on Recognition Day.

The theological institute in the interest of the conference studies continued four days, and all agreed that the instruction was of the highest order.

ISLAND PARK, The eighteenth annual session

INDIANA. of Island Park Assembly, while not as largely patronized as in some years in the past, was perhaps one of its most successful sessions. The officers considered the hard times in making up the program and incurring expenses, and as a result the receipts will come nearer paying the expenses than for some years past. Dr. L. E.

Prentiss, the new superintendent, though inexperienced in Assembly work, certainly deserves much credit for the excellent management and program.

The special features were well patronized. G. A. R. Day was a delightful occasion. On Epworth League Day the Rev. A. S. Preston, of Goshen, delivered the principal address. Leaguers came from all points of the compass with bands, banners, and enthusiasm.

C. L. S. C. Day, witnessed something of a revival. The Rev. Geo. M. Brown delivered a lecture and gave the diplomas to six graduates. A good sized class for 1900 was organized, and doubtless there will be many more additions to it as the result of the visit of the field secretary to this Assembly.

Athletic Day brought boating, swimming, running, jumping, and hurdle races.

The Assembly was a success along all lines this year, and preparations are being made for a greater session next year.

LAKE MADISON, Without doubt the seventh annual session of the Lake Madison State Chautauqua Assembly was financially the most successful one in its history, all expenses being met and the entire indebtedness wiped out.

The Round Tables aroused deep interest and the Class of 1900 received a large number of recruits.

The regular Recognition Day service of responsive readings, mottoes, and Chautauqua hymns was successfully carried out and a dozen graduates had the pleasure of passing through the golden gate.

The best talent of the nation spoke from the platform and fine music was furnished by specialists.

Recognizing the value of systematic study the management have organized a Sunday-school normal department and arrangements have been made by which Lake Madison Assembly can issue diplomas to members completing the course. Larger plans than ever before are making for the next annual session.

LAKE SIDE, At the Lakeside Assembly a class

OHIO. of sixteen received diplomas after passing through the golden gate and under the arches. The Rev. George M. Brown was present and delivered the principal address.

A variety of work was done at the Round Table meetings and readers for the Class of 1900 were enrolled.

Geology, history, music, elocution, cookery, the modern languages, normal work, and Bible study made up the educational department.

A fine array of talent occupied the lecture platform, helping to make an interesting program.

LANCASTER, The opening concert at the Lancaster Assembly was greeted by

OHIO. an audience of three thousand people, the largest ever known on opening day at this Assembly.

For those who desired to spend several hours each day in study, several educational departments were offered and there was a large enrollment in all the classes.

Bishop John H. Vincent was present on Recognition Day, delivered the addresses, and presented diplomas to seven Truthseekers who passed through the golden gate.

Round Tables were conducted by Dr. W. L. Davidson and a large class for 1900 was formed.

The lectures, entertainments, and concerts—a feast of good things—were held in the fine new auditorium, a building with perfect acoustic properties and a seating capacity of five thousand.

The pleasure and convenience of the many thousand visitors was much enhanced by the daily issue of a neat folio called the *Lancaster Assembly and Camp Meeting Herald* in which was published the daily program and spicy reports of happenings on the Assembly grounds.

LONG BEACH, A three o'clock Forum Hour at CALIFORNIA, which economic and financial questions were discussed was an admirable feature of the Long Beach Assembly.

At the Round Table meetings arrangements were made to hold a convention of all Chautauquans and all who wished to join the Nineteenth Century Class, on the first Monday evening of September.

On Recognition Day Prof. Thomas T. Bailey and Pres. S. H. Weller assisted in the Recognition services, when diplomas were presented to five graduates.

The summer school offered excellent instruction in the sciences and practical arts, and the general program was filled with good things for the delectation of the large number of visitors.

MOUNT GRETN, Few if any of the Assemblies can offer a more elaborate educational department than was provided by the Pennsylvania Chautauqua Assembly this year. History, the sciences, literature, the ancient and modern languages, philosophy, art, needlework, cooking, kindergarten work, and the C. L. S. C. were represented in the department of instruction by able educators.

In the general program the college oratorical contest created great enthusiasm and the music during the Assembly was especially fine. Among the leading platform speakers were E. P. Gaston, F. R. Roberson, C. E. Bolton, J. R. Reitsell, S. S. Schmucker, and others eminent in their lines.

Nineteen graduates passed through the gate and the extra songs, poems, the addresses by the Rev. George Elliott, D.D., and other attractions made a full program on Recognition Day.

Interesting Round Tables were held and the suggestive talks and discussions were potent factors in enlisting new members for the Class of 1900.

The increase of attendance testifies to the popularity of this Assembly

OCEAN CITY, The two days' session of the NEW JERSEY. Ocean City Assembly passed off pleasantly, the attendance comparing very favorably with that of the previous year.

The exercises consisted of lectures during the day with a lecture and concert in the evening, the closing concert conducted by Mrs. H. H. Kynett being especially enjoyed by the Chautauquans, of whom there was a larger number present than last year.

No graduates were present this year, neither was there a new class formed, but the interests of the C. L. S. C. are being promoted by earnest workers.

TALK ABOUT BOOKS.

Shakespeare. Another addition to the numerous editions of Shakespeare's plays is the "Arden Shakespeare,"* a series of several volumes each containing one drama. The general plan of the series, as explained in the preface, is to present the most important plays of the great English dramatist in a form convenient not only for grammatical and philological study, but also for showing their merit as literary productions. The introduction to each volume combines the literary

history of the play with an extended analysis and criticism of the plot and the characters. Each play is thoroughly annotated and subjects of special interest and importance are discussed in the appendices. The text as far as possible conforms to the Globe edition, and a glossary and an index are appended to each volume. These books, neatly bound and printed on excellent paper, are well adapted for use in high school and college.

Three volumes* of Longmans' English Classics series are Shakespeare's "As You Like It," "A

*The Arden Shakespeare: Hamlet. Edited by E. K. Chambers, B.A. 224 pp.—Macbeth. Edited by E. K. Chambers, B.A. 188 pp.—Julius Caesar. Edited by Arthur D. Innis, M.A. 143 pp.—Twelfth Night. Edited by Arthur D. Innis, M.A. 153 pp.—As You Like It. Edited by J. C. Smith, M.A. (Edin.), B.A. (Oxon.) 182 pp.—King Richard II. Edited by C. H. Herford, Litt. D. 212 pp. 40 cts. each. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.

*As You Like It. With an Introduction by Barrett Wendell and Notes by William Lyon Phelps. 136 pp.—A Midsummer Night's Dream. Edited with Notes and an Introduction by George Pierce Baker, A.B. 144 pp.—The Merchant of Venice. Edited with Notes and an Introduction by Francis B. Gummere, Ph.D. 196 pp. New York: Longmans, Green and Co.

Midsummer Night's Dream," and *"The Merchant of Venice."* The introductions, written in a simple, lucid style easily comprehended by young students, are historical, biographical, and critical in nature and they contain much interesting information necessary to a complete comprehension and appreciation of the plays. Explanatory notes accompany the text and the chronological table in each volume contains, besides dates pertaining to the life and works of Shakespeare, contemporaneous events of literary and historical interest. The volumes are substantially and uniformly bound in cloth and printed in large clear type on heavy paper.

*"The Reader's Shakespeare,"** a series of three volumes, is to present all of Shakespeare's dramas in a condensed form, with annotations, for the convenience of the public reader and for use in schools as supplementary readers. The first volume contains all of the English and Roman historical plays by this great dramatist, each being preceded by short historical narratives. The expurgations and condensations in no way destroy the continuity of the plots but rather leave the plays in a form very desirable for brief dramatic presentation. By the use of a small diacritic mark the important words are indicated and students of elocution will find much of interest and value in the General Notes and Suggestions preceding the text of the plays. The book, a model of typographical art, is well bound in covers stamped with artistic designs.

Fiction. *"Making Fate,"*† by Pansy, presents a pleasing outward appearance. Though typographically it is not entirely free from errors, the lessons it teaches are none the less pointed and boys as well as girls might study them with profit.

The sixth volume of Merriam's Violet series is entitled *"The Snowball."*‡ It is a short story of the seventeenth century in which a king and several court officials figure conspicuously. The illustrations are in harmony with the time of the scenes depicted.

The author of *"Views of English Society"* has produced a story of extreme simplicity depicting the emotions and sensibilities of a deaf-mute.¶ It is entirely introspective and autobiographical in character and makes interesting reading.

W. Carlton Dawe is the author of *"Yellow and*

*White,"** a collection of short, well-told stories of adventure in various cities of the Orient. While the highest sentiment of the human heart is made the excuse for most of the adventures, some of them are startling and distasteful to a refined moral nature.

A fine piece of character sketching will be found in a small volume entitled *"The Victory of Ezry Gardner."*† The picture of a quiet, undisturbed life on a distant New England island, the rude awakening caused by the Civil War, the return to peaceful pursuits, and most of all the struggles, longings, and final peace which came to the heart of the simple old man, Ezry Gardner, is a masterful painting full of pathetic humor.

With a graphic pen the author of *"The White Rocks"*‡ has pictured the suffering that a firm adherence to fixed principles of truth and morality may sometimes cause. The temptation in this story comes in the form of love, but the characters, M. le Pasteur and Mme. Massod de Bussens, at the decisive moment show an unexpected strength. The contrast in the large number of characters is very marked and the author has produced a story not wholly without dramatic power.

Helen B. Dole has translated from the French of Paul Margueritte a novel called *"L'Avril."*¶ The simple plot, the gentle, cultured characters, and the high moral tone of the story are restful to one who is weary of the excitement caused by deep plots and villainous characters. It is exquisitely bound in green and gold, printed on fine, heavy paper, and tastefully illustrated.

In the maze of descriptions and soliloquies which abound in Zola's *"Rome"*§ one is in danger of losing sight of every part of the story except the fact that Abbé Pierre Froment wrote a book which was condemned by papal authority as unorthodox. But this need not be much regretted for many of the scenes depicted are highly sensational and wholly in the realm of improbability. The chief value of the book lies in the information it contains concerning the city whose name the volume bears.

Religious. The possibilities attainable by the Christian are forcefully and plainly depicted in a book called *"Walking with God."*¶

* *Yellow and White.* By W. Carlton Dawe. 226 pp. \$1.00. Boston: Roberts Bros.

† *The Victory of Ezry Gardner.* By Imogen Clark. 173 pp. 75 cts.—‡ *The White Rocks.* A Novel translated from the French of Édouard Rod. With Illustrations by E. Boyd Smith. 285 pp. \$1.25.—¶ *L'Avril.* Translated from the French of Paul Margueritte by Helen B. Dole. 194 pp. \$1.00. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell & Company.

§ *Rome.* By Émile Zola. Translated by Ernest Alfred Vizetelly. Two vols. 442+479 pp. \$2.00. New York: Macmillan and Co.

¶ *Walking with God.* By Samuel Bond Randall. Introduction by Henry C. Mabie, D.D. 121 pp. 60 cts. New York: Fleming H. Revell Company.

* *The Reader's Shakespeare.* By David Charles Bell. Vol. 1. Historical Plays, English and Roman. 496 pp. \$1.50. New York: Funk and Wagnalls Company.

† *Making Fate.* By Pansy (Mrs. G. R. Alden). Illustrated. 396 pp. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Company.

‡ *The Snowball.* By Stanley J. Weyman. Illustrated. 65 pp. 40 cts. New York: The Merriam Company.

¶ *In a Silent World: The Love Story of a Deaf Mute.* By the author of *"Views of English Society,"* etc. 165 pp. New York: Dodd, Mead and Company.

After a description of the path, the author shows what are the fruits to be gathered by the way and indicates the guideposts which point out the direct road.

The three popular amusements about which there is the widest diversity of opinion—theater-going, card-playing, and dancing—are the themes carefully discussed in a small volume * by the Rev. Perry W. Sinks. He sets forth clearly the general tendency of these amusements and cites eminent authority to show that the views expressed are not held by himself alone. The book merits a careful and thoughtful reading.

Under the title "St. Paul the Traveller and the Roman Citizen" † Dr. W. M. Ramsay first discusses the authenticity of the biblical record of the life of Paul and investigates the authorship of *Acts*, basing his arguments on the proposition that "if Luke wrote *Acts* his narrative *must* agree in a striking and convincing way with Paul's; they *must* confirm, explain, and complete one another." Then follows an interesting history of the life of Paul, in which his words and those of his historian are carefully collated. The author's opinion concerning the object of Paul's journey into Arabia differs from that of some earlier writers.

"The Prophets of Israel" ‡ is a series of sketches based upon Old Testament history translated from the work of Carl Heinrich Cornill. Elijah he calls the "pioneer of a new epoch in the history of the religion of Israel—a religion founded by Moses which through the prophets became the religion of the world." How this was accomplished is the object of his consideration of the different prophets mentioned in the Old Testament.

The fourth volume of the International Theological Library series is entitled "History of Christian Doctrine." § The author aims, as stated in the preface, "to present in an objective way and in an impartial spirit the course of theological thought respecting the religion of the Gospel." The progress of ancient, medieval, and modern theology he has divided into five periods, in the last of which he shows the effect of philosophical and scientific researches on theology. The book is written in an adig-nified style befitting the subject.

A collection of more than thirty sermons by Dr.

* Popular Amusements and the Christian Life. By Rev. Perry Wayland Sinks. 176 pp. 75 cts. New York and Chicago: Fleming H. Revell Company.

† St. Paul the Traveller and the Roman Citizen. By W. M. Ramsay, D.C.L., LL.D. 410 pp. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

‡ The Prophets of Israel: Popular Sketches from Old Testament History. By Carl Heinrich Cornill. Translated by Sutton F. Corkran. 210 pp. Chicago: The Open Court Publishing Company.

§ History of Christian Doctrine. By George Park Fisher, D.D., LL.D. 598 pp. \$2.50 net. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

David James Burrell is called "The Spirit of the Age."* Under peculiar titles, some of which at first seem to bear no relation to the text quoted, the author has presented vital truths which furnish much food for thought. Each subject treated in a narrative style, devoid of argumentation, is elucidated with abundant illustrative facts.

Miscellaneous. A brief manual of parliamentary law is entitled "The Parliamentarian; or Parliamentary Law Condensed."† A large amount of information is compacted in this small volume and a ready reference table is one valuable feature.

Another book which treats of the same subject but more elaborately is "The Woman's Manual of Parliamentary Law."‡ It contains practical examples particularly adapted to women's organizations and the appendix contains a model constitution and by-laws.

George Bird Grinnell in "The Story of an Indian," § one of the Stories of the West series, takes us into the presence of the red man of the forest where we can see his home life, accompany him on the war trail and witness the battlefields, engage in his industries, and study his nature and investigate his religious beliefs. All this and more the author does for the reader and he is aided in making his story most vivid by a dozen or more fine illustrations.

The "Primer of Philosophy" § is not what its title suggests, a work for beginners, though one from which they may gather useful information through the definitions of technical terms and explanations of various philosophical theories which it contains.

For the lovers of birds, for the sportsman, and for the amateur ornithologist, Daniel Giraud Elliot, F. R. S. E., has prepared a reference book ¶ containing a history and description of the snipes, sandpipers, plovers, and their allies found along the coasts of North America and on the shores of inland bodies of water. The table placed in the appendix and the large number of beautiful full-page illustrations will be valuable aids to the student in identifying any particular bird. The fine typographical work and neat binding make this an excellent example of the art of book-making.

* The Spirit of the Age and Other Sermons. By David James Burrell, D.D. 381 pp. \$1.50. New York: Wilbur B. Ketcham.

† The Parliamentarian; or Parliamentary Law Condensed. By Rev. T. B. Neely, D.D., LL.D. 90 pp. 40 cts. Cincinnati: Cranston and Curtis. New York: Hunt and Eaton.

‡ The Woman's Manual of Parliamentary Law. By Harriette R. Shattuck. 297 pp. 75 cts. Boston: Lee and Shepard.

§ The Story of an Indian. By George Bird Grinnell. Illustrated. 282 pp. New York: D. Appleton and Company.

¶ Primer of Philosophy. By Dr. Paul Carus. 236 pp. Chicago: The Open Court Publishing Company.

¶ North American Shore Birds. By Daniel Giraud Elliot, F. R. S. E. Illustrated with seventy-four plates by Edwin Sheppard. 268 pp. \$2.50. New York: Francis P. Harper.



"MOLIÈRE" (JEAN BAPTISTE POQUELIN).

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REQUIRED READING FOR THE CHAUTAUQUA LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CIRCLE.

THE FRENCH DRAMA IN MOLIÈRE'S TIME.

BY F. M. WARREN, PH. D.

PROFESSOR OF ROMANCE LANGUAGES, ADELBERT COLLEGE.

MOLIÈRE brought his company of actors, who had been wandering about in the provinces of France with him for fifteen years, to Paris in the autumn of 1658, and on the 24th of October of that year gave his first authorized performance at the Louvre. On the 17th of February, 1673, he was carried from the stage to his deathbed. With him it was fifteen years of preparation and almost fifteen years of fruition. And in this second fifteen years the second and greater expansion of the French drama took place.

The first had come in the palmy days of Pierre Corneille and Jean Rotrou.¹ These writers had begun their career at about the same time, in 1628 and 1629. They had both started with comedies and tragicomedies—a style of play much in vogue in their day, serious in tone, rather extravagant in action and incidents, in which the leading characters turned out well. But neither had found his true bent until 1636, when Rotrou's "Deux Sosies"² and Corneille's "Cid" set the standard for subsequent comedy and tragedy in France.



¹The Notes on the Required Reading in THE CHAUTAUQUAN will be found following those on the books of the course, in the C. L. S. C. Department.

civil wars of the Fronde in 1648 and 1649 it was tragedy which received the most attention. In 1650 Rotrou died. In 1652 Corneille temporarily withdrew from the stage. Then comedy got the upper hand with a new set of authors, among whom were Thomas Corneille, younger than Pierre by nearly twenty years, Cyrano de Bergerac,³ better known for his stories of adventure in the sun and moon, Paul Scarron, the parodist of Virgil's *Æneid*, and Philippe Quinault,⁴ the future librettist.

This period of the supremacy of comedy was not lasting. If it may be said to have dated from 1649 it was quite over by 1656. For in that year Thomas Corneille gave tragedy a new lease of life with his "*Timocrate*," a play whose success had been equaled by "*Le Cid*" only. Quinault quickly contributed to the same end by his classical "*Mort de Cyrus*."⁵ Even Cyrano, with all his satirical nature, had foreseen this reaction in dramatic taste and had sought for a more stable reputation with his "*Mort d'Agrip- pine*," played in 1654, the year previous to his death.

When Molière established his troupe at the capital in 1658 he found himself in the midst of a revival of the nobler style of drama. And though he was a writer of comedy almost exclusively, yet he was to help on the enthusiasm for tragedy in a most marked way by means of his acting.

In the summer of 1658 he had played at Rouen, Corneille's native town, where he was then living in retirement and writing religious poetry and translations. In Molière's stock of plays were many of Corneille's tragedies. The performance of some of these before the eyes of their author—coupled, it is rumored, with the attractions of one of the actresses—aroused Corneille's dramatic spirit from its lethargy. The first fruits of this awakening were seen

in the tragedy of "*Œdipe*,"⁶ in 1659. From this time on to the year following Molière's death hardly a season passed without a new tragedy or tragi-comedy from the pen of this Nestor of the French theater.

It was Molière who was the occasion for the return of the elder Corneille to the stage. It was Molière also who started on his life work that other great dramatist of France, Jean Racine. Racine had begun his



"LES FEMMES SAVANTES," ACT III., SCENE II.

literary career as a poet, but soon recognized his bent toward the theater. A personal acquaintance with Molière, through Boileau and La Fontaine, may have paved the way for his first effort in play-writing, for in 1664, when Racine was but twenty-four years of age, Molière's company brought out his tragedy of "*La Thèbaïde*."⁷ The next year his "*Alexandre*" was played by the same troupe, but after a few performances was transferred to the actors of the Hôtel of Burgundy. This action in-

flicted an injury on Molière which the latter never forgot, and so long as he was at its head his company never acted any of Racine's plays. They were all brought out at the Hôtel of Burgundy. All with one exception ("Les Plaideurs") were tragedies, and all rivaled the success of Corneille's earlier efforts, while entirely overshadowing his later and contemporaneous ones. The head of French tragedy during the last years of Molière's career was Racine. The two Corneilles and Quinault were relegated to the second rank by his triumphs.

So it may be safely said that in Molière's time tragedy fairly rivaled comedy. It would indeed have surpassed the latter had comedy not been reinforced by Molière's masterpieces. The other writers of comedy were of inferior talent and versatility. Cyrano and Scarron—who had died in 1660—had left no worthy successors, though Thomas Corneille and Quinault occasionally attempted comedy, as Racine did in the one instance already mentioned. What new authors there were in the field may be said to have sprung from the loins of Molière. They aspired to be his rivals, and at best were little more than his imitators. Some of them were primarily actors of the Hôtel of Burgundy, such as Brécourt, D'Hauteroche, and Poisson.⁹ These devoted themselves chiefly to one-act comedies, often in ridicule of Molière and his company.

Others were professional dramatists only, or even literary men, like Chappuzeau, Boursault, Donneau de Visé, and Montfleury,¹⁰ the son of the well-known actor of tragedy, but himself a lawyer. Boursault was the best of them all, and his plays can still lay claim to some degree of literary excellence. Montfleury was next to him. None were on a level with the lesser writers of tragedy and now are but mere names in the history of the drama. Molière was their pattern, to be admired or assailed, and perhaps without him they might not even have existed in literature. And indeed when Corneille, Racine, and Molière hold the boards there can be very little room for minor players.

Molière's coming to Paris, therefore, may be said to mark the beginning of a new era in French drama. As actor and writer he could advance dramatic art in every way. In fact he seems to have been the center of the dramatic revival, for with him much of

its glory passed away. The year after his death Corneille permanently left the scene. After 1673 Racine wrote but two plays for the general public, "Iphigénie" and "Phèdre." His great tragedies of "Esther" and "Athalie" followed "Phèdre" at twelve years and more of distance, and were written for the girls' school at St. Cyr. No theater performed them in Paris before the second decade of the next century, in 1716.



"L'AVARE," ACT I, SCENE III.



M. JOURDAIN, IN "LE BOURGEOIS GENTILHOMME."

Thomas Corneille and Quinault, second-rate writers as they were, and predecessors of Molière, were the best who continued regular dramatic work after his time. They, with Boursault, were the only playwrights of any account who remained after Racine's retirement in 1677, and of these three survivors Quinault since 1671 had given himself up wholly to the making of librettos for Lulli's¹¹ French-Italian operas. Such sudden subsidence, however, was no new thing in the history of the theater. The stage of nearly every nation, ancient and modern, had seen it. There has always been a period of cultivation during which the forms of art are clearly evolved. Then with the advent of master minds these forms are given content, and the work is

done. So it was in Molière's time. Several generations had labored on the outward form which French comedy and tragedy were to assume. It remained for Corneille, Molière, and Racine to fill this form with life.

Toward the middle of the sixteenth century it had been settled what the nature of French tragedy was to be. It was to consist of verse only, never prose. The verse was to be in lines of twelve syllables, called alexandrine from a famous medieval poem on Alexander the Great, written in that measure. The lines were to rhyme in couplets. The play was to be divided into five acts, with subdivisions into scenes. The characters in the play were to be people of high rank or commanding position in the state, so that what affected them might be considered as affecting the body politic. But French history was tacitly excluded from tragedy. Greeks, Romans, Arabs, and even Spaniards were preferred. The plot of the play should be in keeping with the responsible position of its characters. Nothing trivial or vulgar should be allowed in it, much less any comic element.

Such was tragedy as Corneille found it on his advent to the stage. He improved upon it somewhat by making the acts more nearly equal and introducing a sub-plot of love between the leading characters, which should play in and out of the leading plot that had a more general bearing. The dramatic situation with Corneille is either a contest between love and honor, as in "Le Cid," or love and patriotism, as in "Horace," or love and religion, as in "Polyeucte."¹² Racine took a different trend from his great predecessor. He endeavored to analyze human passions and depict their influence on human actions. It was especially in the portrayal of woman's soul and sentiments that he excelled, as witness his "Andromaque" and "Phèdre." But this departure, which was really a return to the more natural view of life, came later. When Molière began his Parisian career it was Corneille's heroic, almost epic, conception of tragedy that prevailed, softened and at times turned into sentimentality by the

undue prominence of his erotic subplot and the influence of the Hôtel de Rambouillet and its successors. Tragi-comedy, which very often borrowed its subjects from the cape-and-sword comedy of Spain, differed mainly from tragedy in its bloodless solutions. But indeed, whatever the solution of a French play might be, no blood-letting was seen on the stage. The violent taking-off of the leading characters at the close of the tragedy was told to the audience and not acted out before it. This was perhaps more for the purpose of preserving the tradition of Latin drama, which the French imitated, than to save the feelings of the spectators.

Tragi-comedy in its outward form differed in no respect from tragedy. The same may be said of comedy in verse, which was the usual kind up to Molière's time, having been practiced by Corneille, Rotrou, Scarron, and the rest, in deference probably to Latin custom again and models furnished by Plautus and Terence. Comedy in prose, which had, however, an existence, was regarded as inferior to the other. It was not national, but an imitation of Italian comedy, which had long been played in France by companies of Italian actors. Molière wrote both kinds, yet his prose comedies stopped short with three acts and burlesque situations, until he risked "*L'Avare*" in five acts. And the fact that its characters spoke in prose was at first a hindrance to the success of even this masterpiece.

In contrast with its nobler rivals comedy, whether in prose or verse, drew its characters and scenes from the middle and lower classes. It was possible, of course, to give a mock-heroic twist to these plebeian situations, as Scarron did, in which case comedy came nearer to tragi-comedy, and was something like Spanish cape-and-sword comedy from which Scarron drew his inspiration. Corneille's comedies were not heroic at all,



CHRYSALE, IN "*LES FEMMES SAVANTES*."

but they were not essentially comic in tone. His earlier ones were attempts to represent certain sides of social life in Paris, but his later, "*Le menteur*"¹³ and its sequel, are character sketches from Spanish originals. "*Le menteur*" has been regarded as the best French comedy previous to Molière.

Molière's earlier comedies, those he wrote in his fifteen years of wanderings, seem to have included farces, coarse and buffoon, and more ambitious comedies of character taken from Italian models that he had seen played. But in both classes he relied for his success on the traditional absurd situations and misunderstandings. Later his keen observation of men and manners brought his plays into closer touch with actual life and character. Yet his fondness for the farce type



M. COQUELIN IN "LES PRÉCIEUSES RIDICULES."

never deserted him, and it was "Le Malade Imaginaire" that ended his career.

The characters of comedy were more varied and at the same time more conventional than those of tragedy. The farce generally offered three leading ones, a wife and a lover who acted as dupes, and the husband, their butt. This simple plot is the survival of the poetical French farces of the pre-renaissance stage. The Italians had improved on this limited range by fusing the farce with Roman comedy. The resulting product was a play having such conventional characters as the girl Isabelle, the lover Clitandre, the father or guardian

Géronte, the clown Harlequin or Punch, the nurse, the boaster, and so on. But the situation was the same. The stupid elders were tricked, to the profit of the lovers.

Corneille, as we see, rejected these vulgar models, and started out to elevate the tone of comedy by studying contemporaneous life and customs. His attempts at reform were of some advantage to his successors. It was he who did away with the intriguing nurse, played by a man in disguise, for whom the lady's maid or soubrette was substituted that Molière was to make so famous. Scarron helped along the cause by bringing over the valet from the Spanish

theater. Finally Molière adapted the old conventional personages, together with the new ones employed by these predecessors, to the people he saw about him, bringing them back to nature and infusing life in them. But his particular contribution to French drama is the young girl, changed from the rather artificial traditional Isabelle into the modest, sensible Henriette. This heroine became national. She appealed to the ideals of the French as no other type had ever done, and it may not be too much to say that Molière's conception of the *ingénue* has exercised an important influence on the education of girls in France.

The characters of the French drama were few and its situations simple. Stage scenery and costuming were in keeping with this simplicity. Tragedy had patterned closely after its Latin models in restricting the place of the action to one locality. The national tradition fought against this rule, and the audiences supported for a long time the freedom of the stage enjoyed by the old miracle plays. But finally the custom of Rome triumphed and few tragedies after "*Le Cid*" used more than one place for the whole action. An abuse which may have begun with the great success of "*Le Cid*," and which consisted in seating the nobility on the sides and at the back of the stage itself, further tended to destroy all decorative effects. What was true of tragedy held for comedy also. The scenery that was set at the beginning of the play lasted until the end. Only in comedy the doors and windows of the houses fronting on the central open space could be used and so there was not, strictly speaking, absolute unity of place. Occasionally also a comedy might venture to shift its scenery between the acts, but this was rare.

Unity of place was accompanied by unity of time, by which was meant that the duration of the events in the play should not exceed twenty-four hours. This law also was inherited from the Latin stage. It had some reason for existence in tragedy, where a crisis in human destiny was depicted and not scenes out of daily life. Consequently it was more rigidly adhered to than unity of

place even. But for comedy this unity had no particular meaning, and its enforcement there, while quite general, was undoubtedly due to the influence of tragedy and the influence of unity of place. Molière transgressed these laws in but few instances.

There were but few theaters in Paris in Molière's time. Only one, the Hôtel of Burgundy, had had an authorized existence previous to 1628. About that date another, the Marais, was founded, and here most of Corneille's plays were performed. Toward 1658, however, these two theaters began to have specialties. The older leaned more



L'APOTHECAIRE, IN "M. DE FOURCRAUGNAC."

toward tragedy. The younger devoted much of its attention to the presentation of spectacular plays, which were a kind of opera in embryo, demanding much machinery and being partly set to music. Molière's company set up a third stage, which after 1661 was located in the Palais-Royal. Though his custom at first was to play a tragedy and a comedy at the same entertainment, yet as comedy developed and expanded into the conventional five acts the tragedy was allowed to fall out and the company became known as actors of comedy chiefly. Besides these regular establishments Italian players still visited Paris with their comedy of masks, and either occupied some manorial hall during their stay or else were granted a foothold in one of the three theaters. This latter arrangement was possible, because as a rule there were only three days in the week when theaters were open, Friday, Sunday, and Tuesday, with Thursday added when the play was meeting with unusual

success. A new piece was brought out on Friday, so as to insure a large Sunday audience. We know that the Italians occupied Molière's stage quite frequently, acting on the alternate days. So that the Palais-Royal was at times open every day in the week.

The hour for the performance in Molière's time was somewhat unsettled. Earlier in the century the play began and ended before dark. Extra performances were given in the forenoon (*matinées*). But after Louis XIV. had established a morning court ceremonial, which detained the nobility at his apartments until past the noon hour, the theaters opened later, at four o'clock or even five. They were out by seven, after a two hours' performance. The reason for this haste in acting may have been due to the situation of the actors, hemmed in as they were by a part of their audience and not being forced to change their costumes. The *parterre*, too, which held about one half

of the spectators, had no seats, and its jostling crowd often decided the success or failure of the piece. Consequently it was not good policy to keep it waiting long between acts. Those whom the stage and *parterre* could not accommodate occupied the galleries that ran around the sides of the building. Here was the only place that the ladies could go. The capacity of the theaters, standing and sitting, was about a thousand. The price of tickets was practically what it is to-day.

The actors were put to little expense for their scenery but were not limited as to the cost of their costumes. Here it was the material that counted and not the variety of dress. The stage in Molière's time had little notion of historical accuracy. A Roman, Turk, or Spaniard was all the same to it in outward appearance, the ruling fashions of Paris dictating the cut of the dress. So the expense for costuming could



DORIMÈNE, IN "LE MARIAGE FORCÉ."

be small or large as the actor desired, and in practice was evidently in proportion to his income. For the companies being formed on the basis of mutual profit and loss the door receipts were the only means of remuneration. These were divided among the players according to their importance. The authors were rewarded either by a sum paid by the company to them for their piece or by a share in the gross receipts for the time that their play was running.

The social position of actors in Molière's time was a low one. Not from any prejudice against the stage, evidently, since dramatists like Corneille and Scarron were on the same footing at the Hôtel de Rambouillet and the other salons of Paris as poets and essayists, and were elected to the French Academy as readily. Indeed it would seem as though the composition of plays was the shortest road to distinction in the Paris of Molière, as it is to-day. But with the actors it was another question. Their wandering, unsettled modes of life had evidently told against them. They were not admitted to society whether their conduct was good or bad. They were not even considered in the light of literary persons. Molière met his friends, Boileau, La Fontaine, Furetière,¹⁵ at public *cafés*. As a writer of comedy he was either not taken seriously or had incurred too much hostility on the part of influential sets, the clergy through "Tartuffe," the salons through "Les Femmes Savantes." As an actor he was considered an outcast with his class, and when on his deathbed he



AGNÈS, IN "L'ÉCOLE DES FEMMES."

asked for spiritual consolation his appeal fell on deaf ears till it was too late. So that it was with the greatest difficulty that his widow procured a bit of consecrated ground in which to lay the remains of the unshrived comedian.

THE SURVIVAL OF MOLIERE'S PLAYS.

BY FRANKLIN FYLES.

JEAN BAPTISTE POQUELIN at the age of twenty-one, in 1643, gave up the opportunity to succeed his father as a valet to the king of France, and became a strolling player under the assumed name of Molière. He died thirty years later, after having written, acted in, and managed many plays which still survive in their entirety on the French stage, and which have been

used in parts by English dramatists nearly or quite up to the present time. In one respect, and in hardly any other, Molière was like our Shakespeare in his work. He knew by practical experience the theatrical audiences of his time, and he wrote directly and solely for their diversion. The standard of dramatic taste in Paris was not Elizabethan, however, and so Molière was not required,

and would not have been able, to produce masterpieces equal to those of Shakespeare. The point to be made here is that Molière's plays have remained in use because their author was, for business as well as literary purposes, a student of human nature. He picked out such themes and characters among the living people as would interest and amuse those same people, and he treated the subjects with the primary and persistent intention of providing diversion. His genius enabled him to satisfy the requirements of both his trade and his profession, and that is the plain, common-sense, everyday reason why the matter which he wrote for the stage has, in one form or another, remained durable up to this day.

Some of our contemporary playwrights seek—and find, more is the pity—remunerative popularity by making vulgar pieces, which happily are not so often indecent as they are merely coarse and rude. Others of them aspire loftily but impracticably to works of ethical value only, discussing social problems, and ignoring the indisputable fact that about all the men and women who go to the theater do it in quest of entertainment. Molière understood the conditions and limitations, and was obedient to them, not defiant. Ability like his, applied as his was, will command the same success in stagecraft to-day, and without its possessor writing anything uncleanly, immoral, or in any way regrettable.

The author who aims at the mark which Molière made, however, must be offensive to a few in order to have his pieces liked by the many, because he must be a keen and caustic satirist of existent and recognizable types of character. If the reader is a frequenter of theaters he may have seen "The Serious Family" performed. In that comedy, as he will remember, a hypocritical clergyman is the figure set up for exposure



THE SCAPIN OF THE PRESENT THÉÂTRE FRANÇAIS.
("LES FOURBERIES DE SCAPIN")

and ridicule. False pretenders in religion are bound to be displeased by such a play, no matter how much sincere Christians may commend the punishment inflicted upon even a mimic rascal in clerical disguise. "The Serious Family" is a free translation into English, or what in theatrical phrase is called an adaptation, of Molière's "Tartuffe," made by Tom Taylor forty years ago, and it will serve to illustrate fairly the Molière matter and manner to those unacquainted with them in the French language.

"The Colonel," another and later Eng-

lish version of "Tartuffe," by F. C. Burnand, departs further from the original story, yet serves as a good example of Molière comedy, the chief elements of which are keen satire, pungent humor, and sharp characterization, sometimes carried pretty close to caricature. "Tartuffe" had one distinction which no other Molière pieces ever gained. It was acted in London some years ago in the original French form translated into English blank verse by John Oxenford. Fielding used the Frenchman's work with a pretense of denying it. So did Colley Cibber² and many others.

It will be observed that plagiarism is no new literary crime among dramatists, and that Molière was a favorite victim. John Dryden re-worded "L'Étourdi"³ for the English stage eleven years after its original production. Dryden called it "Sir Marten Mar-all," and he maltreated the work, rendering it coarsely indecent, but not to its commercial damage, as it was performed thirty-three times in London—a long "run" in those times—and was presented four times at court. From "Le Dépit Amoureux"⁴ Dryden took scenes bodily for his "An Evening Love," and Vanburgh later followed the French original closely in "The Mistake," transferring the action to Spain. Edward Ravenscroft's "Wrangling Lovers" proved to be a plagiarism of the same plot, although the language was different. Ravenscroft appropriated "Le Bourgeois Gentilhomme"⁵ under the name of "The Citizen Turned Gentleman." Arthur Murphy transferred "Sganarelle" into English, and others drew liberally on the matter of this play. Murphy in his "School for Guardians" took incidents of Molière's "L'École des Maris,"⁶ combining them with selections from other pieces. Wycherley, ever free to plunder Molière, stole incidents from him for "The Country Wife," which was modeled, however, on "L'École des Femmes."⁷

The Wycherley piece was acted in New York in a much changed form fif-

teen years ago, and was then called "Wives." Long before that its main idea (an old man who keeps a girl in seclusion to be his wife and is then deceived by her) had been utilized in many different ways on the English stage. Isaac Bickerstaffe's "Love in the City" made use, in the guise of comic opera, of Molière's "Le Mariage Forcé." David Garrick's "The Irish Widow" and Mrs. Bentlivre's "Love's Contrivance" are paraphrases of the same piece. This appropriation of Molière material continued down through all his important plays. "Les Précieuses Ridicules"⁸ seems to have escaped integral transfer, but the theme (a valet who imposes on two pretentious young men) has been borrowed often by various playwrights.



ALCESTE, IN "LE MISANTHROPE."

To "Le Misanthrope" is to be attributed Wycherley's "Plain Dealer," coarsened in form and perverted in teaching. Sheridan is believed to have found in that French play the inspiration for "The School for Scandal." Often the only variation in the English versions of these works was the substitution of a scene from one for the climax of another, or some other transposition of matter. "Le Médecin Malgré Lui"¹⁰ was looted by many English dramatists in this way. Fielding's "Mock Doctor" was one instance, and so late as 1844 this play, in an altered form, was acted at the Queen's Theater in London under the title of "The Irish Doctor."

It is thus that the heritage which Molière left to the modern English stage has come

to us indirectly through the plagiaristic drama of half a century or more ago. His work was easy to utilize. His creations were seized upon and remodeled, sometimes whole plays being thus appropriated, but oftener scenes and characters were separated from their original surroundings and embodied in assertedly new works. The matter was the ingenious inspiration of the author, it was cosmopolitan in value, and it possessed the inherent vigor to survive.

The Molière matter and memory are treated in a more honorific manner in France. Naturally the author whom Frenchmen acclaim the genius of comedy is enthroned in their Comédie Française, the national theater which he founded. No other Paris theater encroaches much upon this appropriate privilege of the Comédie. Molière belongs to it, and this possession is not disputed by the performances that take place at the other subventioned playhouse, the Odéon. The theater in the Place de l'Odéon touches lightly the legacy that Molière left to the house of his own making, and generally with the little known plays that have been for years dropped from the repertory of the theater in the Rue de Richelieu.

So Molière to-day is represented on the French stage by professional successors of the actors whom he brought together for the pleasure of Louis XIV., and his plays are performed with a care and a vigor which show how fresh and sincere is their place in the hearts of the French people. Every few years one of the old Molière comedies, which for one reason or another has been out of use for a long time, is reproduced with new actors in the parts and with fresh accessories. "Le Dépit Amoureux," with its animated love story and its quick intrigue, has always been one of the popular Molière pieces; but the fact that within the past twenty years it has been played 187 times is due in a large measure to the attention attracted to it by a particularly felicitous revival. The same thing prospered "Le Mariage Forcé," which has been played 174 times in the same period.

But evidently the humor of "Le Malade Imaginaire,"¹¹ with the troubles of a hypo-



TARTUFFE, IN "LE TARTUFFE."

chondriac, strikes a fuller note of human sympathy than any of the other pieces, for without the extra attention that a pretentious revival would have brought it has within twenty years been given 176 times. The greatest number of performances in one season was fifteen, and the average was below that, but it was used regularly with no long intervals. The especial popularity of "Le Malade Imaginaire" is not easy to understand. Doubtless it is played now with considerably more delicacy than it was before Louis XIV., but at best the central idea—a man who determines to be rich in spite of nature—is not pleasant, although it has a theatric value which has undoubtedly helped the life of the play. "Tartuffe," with its biting satire, still lives with vigor enough to have reached 159 performances in the past two decades, and "L'Avare,"¹² despite the charges of inconsistency that critics have made against it, was used 151 times.

The endurance of a play so thoroughly satirical as "Tartuffe" answers one charge that writers on Molière, particularly the Germans, have made against him. In a lesser degree "L'Avare" has been assailed in the same way. The charge is that what are called the Coquelin¹³ characters (from the fact that the elder Coquelin has been their representative) are too limited in their attitudes to deserve artistic respect. The particular situation, the envy, remorse, hate, or emotion of any kind, is said to be the feeling of the particular person under certain circumstances, and not of a general type. But even the two plays mentioned, which are in the highest degree illustrative of Molière's treatment of characters, lead the rest of his acted works to-day. "Les Femmes Savantes"¹⁴ has been played 121 times, and this is another comedy strongly marked by the questioned traits of Molière's genius. Evidently the French can still recognize themselves in the Molière portraits, despite the prophets who are still predicting that his vogue will soon cease.

The other pieces that have had over 100 performances at the Comédie Française within twenty years are "Les Fourberies de

Scapin"¹⁵ with 130, "Les Précieuses Ridicules" with 151, "L'Étourdi" with 122, and "Le Misanthrope" with 113. These, with "Tartuffe," "Le Dépit Amoureux," and "Le Mariage Forcé" have best retained their places in French favor, but a number of others are from time to time produced. It must be a labor of loyal love in such a case as that of the pastoral "Mélécerte," which was given three times in 1867, after an interval of many years. It then passed into the repertory of the Odéon, although it has seldom been acted there. In twenty years "L'Amour Mé-



SGANARELLE, IN "LE MÉDECIN MALGRÉ LUI."

decin¹⁶ had only six representations, and five of these were in 1891. "Don Juan" was acted twice in 1877, and "George Dandin" sixteen times in twenty years, its vulgarity keeping it so nearly out of sight. Even in the first third of the century this play was invariably hissed.

Between those two classes of plays stands another list which have not enjoyed the greatest popularity yet have never fallen out of fairly frequent use. These include "Le Médecin Malgré Lui," with a record of 99 repetitions in twenty years; "Amphitryon," with 67, of which 25 were in 1877; and "Le Bourgeois Gentilhomme," with 56.

The critical estimate of Molière's plays, which puts "Tartuffe," "Le Misanthrope," "L'École des Femmes," and "Les Femmes Savantes" at the top, disagrees somewhat, it will be seen, with audiences' appreciation of them, though "Tartuffe" and "Le Misanthrope" stand near the head of the list of those frequently acted.

"L'École des Femmes" is surpassed by many nor is "Les Femmes Savantes," with its author's views on learning, the destiny of woman, and other subjects, expressed through the mouths of the characters, one of the favorites. "Les Fourberies de Scapin" is believed to remain popular through the extravagantly impossible rogueries of the principal personage, but the liking for "Le Misanthrope," with the deficiency in action, cannot be readily accounted for.

In the figures given it may be seen that the performances are few for the period over which they extend, but the list includes twenty pieces, and that makes an average exceeding that of the Shakespearean performances given in New York during the



M. DE FÉRAUDY AS GROS RENÉ IN "LE DÉPIT AMOUREUX."

same time. The Molière plays are produced with pecuniary profit, too, and in the regular routine of the theater, and that is an experience which seldom attends the production of Shakespeare in this country or England.

There is no analogy to be drawn between the attitude of the English-speaking people toward their Shakespeare and the mood in which the French approach their Molière. The French are willing to take the author for himself. They will accept his works, even demand them, when no extraneous charm has been added. The present position of Shakespeare in our theaters is very different. The Shakespearean drama attracts few auditors. Competent actors and adequate mounting are not enough to popu-

larize Shakespeare. He must be made superbly spectacular, the actors must be the best alive, and even then the profit, which is the test of popularity, may not be forthcoming. After several years during which New York had been almost destitute of Shakespeare, the city was last spring suddenly visited by three simultaneous productions of the great poet's works. The representations were meritorious. There may have been no genius in the interpreters, but they were good enough to satisfy any public that was eager to see Shakespeare enacted. New York evidently held no such public. The enterprises all met with scant support.

But the French people who go to the Comédie Français to hear Molière are seeking after what the play itself contains for

their pleasure. The fine actors of the Comédie are of course a power, but the greater number of the Molière performances are given in the summer, when the more conspicuous members of the company are not acting. Nevertheless the Parisians go to hear Molière as regularly as though the best-known names were on the casts. Apart from two or three revivals within the past few years there is no show of extraordinary accessories. The Français strikes an admirable average in the matter of decoration, always with propriety and taste, but the scene is never overladen with what is insignificant merely because it is lavish. It seems, then, that we who go to theaters do not regard our great Shakespeare as highly as the French do their lesser Molière.

LES FEMMES SAVANTES.

BY PROFESSOR ALCÉE FORTIER.

OF TULANE UNIVERSITY.

"LES FEMMES SAVANTES," (The Learned Women) was played at the Palais-Royal on March 11, 1672. It had nineteen representations and was well received. It is one of Molière's masterpieces. It is the last of the great writer's works in verse and the last but one of his comedies, and he seems, at the end of his career, to have wished to produce a work of rare artistic merit. Not only is the play wonderful as a comedy, but the style is admirable. The verse is natural and extremely correct, and suits exactly each personage.

The following extracts will be sufficient for an appreciation of this delightful and deeply philosophical comedy.*

ACT I.

SCENE I.

Armande. What! sister, you will give up the sweet and enchanting title of maiden? You can entertain thoughts of marrying! This vulgar wish can enter your head!

*The translation is taken from "The Dramatic Works of Molière Translated into English Prose," by Charles Heron Wall. London: George Bell and Sons. 1877.

Henriette replies yes, and Armande says:

Armande. O heavens! can such ties have charms for you?

Henriette. And what at my age can I do better than take a husband who loves me, and whom I love, and through such a tender union secure the delights of an innocent life? If there be conformity of tastes, do you see no attraction in such a bond?

Armande upbraids her sister for her low instincts and adds:

Armande. Instead of being in bondage to the will of a man, marry yourself, sister, to philosophy, for it alone raises you above the rest of mankind, gives sovereign empire to reason, and submits to its laws the animal part, with those groveling desires which lower us to the level of the brute. These are the gentle flames, the sweet ties, which should fill every moment of life. And the cares to which I see so many women given up appear to me pitiable frivolities.

Henriette. Heaven, whose will is supreme, forms us at our birth to fill different spheres, and it is not every mind which is composed of material fit to make a philosopher. If your mind is created to soar to those heights which are attained by the speculations of learned men, mine is fitted, sister, to take a meaner flight and to center its weakness on the petty cares of the world. Let us not interfere

with the just decrees of heaven ; but let each of us follow our different instincts. You, borne on the wings of a great and noble genius, will inhabit the lofty regions of philosophy ; I, remaining here below, will taste the terrestrial charms of matrimony.

The above extracts show clearly the character of the two sisters : Armande is pedantic and affected, and Henriette is sensible and natural. Armande rejected the suit of Clitandre, who now loves Henriette and is loved by her, but the haughty sister says :

Armande. But do you find entire safety, tell me, in the vows of a rejected lover ? Do you think his passion for you so great that all love for me can be dead in his heart ?

Henriette. He tells me so, sister, and I trust him.

Clitandre comes up, and Henriette asks him to let them know which one has a claim upon his love. The young man answers frankly that he was at first touched by Armande's attractions, but that he suffered so many slights and so much pain that he "looked elsewhere for a conqueror more gentle, and for chains less cruel."

In spite of Armande's pretended indifference to love she is much piqued by Clitandre's words and speaks angrily :

Armande. You triumph, sister, and seem to fancy that you thereby give me pain.

Henriette. I, sister ? By no means. I know the laws of reason will always have full power over your senses, and that, through the lessons you derive from wisdom, you are altogether above such weakness. Far from thinking you moved by any vexation, I believe that you will use your influence to help me—will second his demand of my hand, and will by your approbation hasten the happy day of our marriage. I beseech you to do so ; and in order to secure this end—

Arm. Your little mind thinks it grand to resort to raillery, and you seem wonderfully proud of a heart which I abandon to you.

Hen. Abandoned it may be ; yet this heart, sister, is not so disliked by you but that if you could regain it by stooping you would even condescend to do so.

Arm. I scorn to answer such foolish prating.

Hen. You do well, and you show us inconceivable moderation.

SCENE III.

Clitandre tells Henriette that he will go to her father.

Henriette. The safest thing to do would be to gain my mother over. My father easily consents to

everything, but he places little weight on what he himself resolves. He has received from heaven a certain gentleness which makes him readily submit to the will of his wife. It is she who governs, and who in a dictatorial tone lays down the law whenever she has made up her mind to anything. I wish I could see in you a more pliant spirit toward her and toward my aunt. If you would but fall in with their views you would secure their favor and their esteem.

Clitandre. I am so sincere that I can never bring myself to praise, even in your sister, that side of her character which resembles theirs. Female doctors are not to my taste. I like a woman to have some knowledge of everything ; but I cannot admire in her the revolting passion of wishing to be clever for the mere sake of being clever. I prefer that she should at times affect ignorance of what she really knows. In short, I like her to hide her knowledge, and to be learned without publishing her learning abroad, quoting the authors, making use of pompous words, and being witty under the least provocation. I greatly respect your mother, but I cannot approve her wild fancies, nor make myself an echo of what she says. I cannot support the praises she bestows upon that literary hero of hers, Mr. Trissotin,¹ who vexes and wearies me to death. I cannot bear to see her esteem such a man and reckon among men of genius a fool whose writings are everywhere hissed—a pedant whose liberal pen furnishes all the markets with waste paper.

By Trissotin, the pedant, Molière meant to ridicule L'Abbé Cotin, who had written outrageously about him. The other pedant of the play, Vadius, is said to designate Ménage,² a *savant* of no mean merit but somewhat affected. It is not certain, however, that such was Molière's intention. The words of Clitandre about the education of women seem to represent exactly Molière's opinion on that subject.

The first act closes with an amusing and somewhat exaggerated conversation between Clitandre and Bélise, the sister of Chrysale,³ Henriette's father, who believes that all young men are in love with her but dare not tell her so openly.

ACT II.

SCENES I. TO V.

ARISTE, Chrysale's brother, promises his support to Clitandre and speaks with Chrysale of Clitandre's love for Henriette. Chrysale consents to the marriage of the lovers and says :

Chrysale. I answer for my wife, and take the business upon myself.

We shall soon see whether he is the master in his house. Martine, the servant, comes in and tells Chrysale that her mistress has turned her out. Chrysale says that he is satisfied with her and that his wife is a little hasty at times.

SCENE VI.

Chrysale asks whether Martine has broken some china or has been dishonest, and Philaminte,⁴ his wife, replies:

Philaminte. She has with unparalleled impudence, after thirty lessons, insulted my ear by the improper use of a low and vulgar word condemned in express terms by Vaugelas.⁵

Chrysale. Is that — ?

Phil. What! In spite of our remonstrances to be always sapping the foundation of all knowledge of grammar, which rules even kings and makes them, with a high hand, obey her laws!

Chry. I thought her guilty of the greatest crime.

Phil. What! You do not think the crime unpardonable?

Chry. Yes, yes.

Phil. I should like to see you excuse her.

Chry. Heaven forbid!

Bélise. It is really pitiful. All constructions are destroyed by her; yet she has a hundred times been told the laws of the language.

Martine. All that you preach there is no doubt very fine, but I don't understand your jargon, not I.

Phil. Did you ever see such impudence? To call a language founded on reason and polite custom a jargon!

Mart. Provided one is understood, one speaks well enough, and all your fine speeches don't do me no good.

Phil. You see! Is not that her way of speaking?—"don't do me no good"!

Bél. O intractable brains! How is it that, in spite of the trouble we daily take, we cannot teach you to speak with congruity? In putting *not* with *no* you have spoken redundantly, and it is, as you have been told, a negative too many.

Martine does not understand what "grammar" means, and Bélise exclaims:

Bél. What a boorish mind! Grammar teaches us the laws of the verb and nominative case, as well as of the adjective and substantive.

Mart. Sure, let me tell you, ma'am, that I don't know those people.

Phil. What martyrdom!

Bél. They are names of words, and you ought to notice how they agree with each other.

Mart. What does it matter whether they agree or fall out?

SCENE VII.

Chrysale's opinion of what a woman should know is amusing, but agrees still less with our modern ideas than Clitandre's.

Chrysale (to Bélise). I am speaking to you, sister. The least solecism one makes in speaking irritates you; but you make strange ones in conduct. Your everlasting books do not satisfy me, and, except a big Plutarch to put my bands in, you should burn all this useless lumber, and leave learning to the doctors of the town. Take away from the garret that long telescope, which is enough to frighten people, and a hundred other baubles which are offensive to the sight. Do not try to discover what is passing in the moon, and think a little more of what is happening at home, where we see everything going topsy-turvy. It is not right, and that too for many reasons, that a woman should study and know so much. To form the minds of her children to good manners, to make her household go well, to look after the servants, and to regulate all expenses with economy ought to be her principal study, and all her philosophy. Our fathers were much more sensible on this point; with them a wife always knew enough when the extent of her genius enabled her to distinguish a doublet from a pair of breeches. She did not read, but she lived honestly; her family was the subject of all her learned conversation, and for books she had needles, thread, and a thimble, with which she worked at her daughter's *trousseau*. Women in our day are far from behaving thus. They must write and become authors. No science is too deep for them. } It is worse in my house than anywhere else; the deepest secrets are understood, and everything is known except what should be known. } Every one knows how go the moon and the polar star, Venus, Saturn, and Mars, with which I have nothing to do. And in this vain knowledge, which they go so far to fetch, they know nothing of the soup of which I stand in need.

Chrysale continues for some time in the same strain, and Philaminte and Bélise are horrified at his coarseness.

ACT III.

SCENE I.

TRISSOTIN, the pedant, appears, and we know him already by the description of him by Clitandre. Philaminte, Armande, and Bélise are "languishing" to hear Trissotin's epigram, and the poet says to Philaminte:

Trissotin. Alas! it is but a new-born child, madam, but its fate ought truly to touch your heart,

for it was in your courtyard that I brought it forth, but a moment since.

Philaminte. To make it dear to me it is sufficient for me to know its father.

Trissotin. Your approbation may serve it as a mother.

Bélise. What wit he has!

SCENE II.

Henriette comes in, and on seeing Trissotin wishes to run away, but her mother stops her:

Philaminte. Come nearer, and with both ears share in the delight of hearing wonders.

Bélise. Ah! let us think of the new born babe, I beg of you.

Trissotin reads a most ridiculous sonnet and a foolish madrigal which were not composed by Molière but were really written by L'Abbé Cotin and are to be found in his works. The three *précieuses*⁸ are in ecstasy over the sonnet and the madrigal and they anticipate our present New Woman in their plans for the emancipation of their sex.

Armande. It is insulting our sex too grossly to limit our intelligence to the power of judging of a skirt, of the make of a garment, of the beauties of lace, or of a new brocade.

Bél. We must rise above this shameful condition and bravely proclaim our emancipation.

Trissotin. Every one knows my respect for the fairer sex, and that if I render homage to the brightness of their eyes I also honor the splendor of their intellect.

Phil. And our sex does you justice in this respect. But we will show to certain minds who treat us with proud contempt that women also have knowledge; that, like men, they can hold learned meetings—regulated, too, by better rules; that they wish to unite what elsewhere is kept apart, join noble language to deep learning, reveal nature's laws by a thousand experiments, and on all questions proposed admit every party and ally themselves to none.

Tris. For order I prefer peripateticism.⁷

Phil. For abstractions I love platonism.

Arm. Epicurus pleases me, for his tenets are solid.

Bél. I agree with the doctrine of atoms⁸; but I find it difficult to understand a vacuum, and I much prefer subtle matter.

Tris. I quite agree with Descartes about magnetism.

Arm. I like his vortices.⁹

Phil. And I his falling worlds.

Arm. I long to see our assembly opened and to distinguish ourselves by some great discovery.

Tris. Much is expected from your enlightened knowledge, for nature has hidden few things from you.

Phil. For my part, I have, without boasting, already made one discovery: I have plainly seen men in the moon.

Bél. I have not, I believe, as yet quite distinguished men, but I have seen steeples as plainly as I see you.

SCENE V.

This scene is one of the most amusing in the play, and begins thus:

Trissotin (introducing Vadius). Here is the gentleman who is dying to see you. In presenting him I am not afraid, madam, of being accused of introducing a profane person to you; he can hold his place among the wits.

Philaminte. The hand which introduces him sufficiently proves his value.

Tris. He has a perfect knowledge of the ancient authors, and knows Greek, madam, as well as any man in France.

Phil. (to Bélise). Greek! O heaven! Greek! He understands Greek, sister.

Bél. (to Armande). Ah, niece! Greek!

Arm. Greek! Oh, how delightful!

Phil. What, sir, you understand Greek? Allow me, I beg, for the love of Greek, to embrace you.

Vadius embraces also Bélise and Armande.

Henriette (to Vadius, who comes forward to embrace her). Excuse me, sir, I do not understand Greek.

This answer of Henriette's has become a proverb in the French language, and is used whenever one wishes to refuse something.

The two pedants pay the most extravagant praises to one another and end by a tremendous quarrel.

Tris. Go, you little dunce! you pitiful quill-driver!

Vad. Go, you penny-a-liner! you disgrace to the profession!

Tris. Go, you book-maker! you impudent plagiarist!

Vad. Go, you pedantic snob!

Tris. Go, go, and make restitution to the Greeks and Romans for all your shameful thefts.

Vad. Go and do penance on Parnassus for having murdered Horace in your verses.

Vadius ends by saying he defies Trissotin "in verse and prose, Greek and Latin."

ACT IV.

SCENE II.

ARMANDE tells her mother that Henriette is willing to obey her father and marry Clitandre, and Philaminte gives the cause of her dislike to the young man.

Philaminte. He knows that I write a little, thank heaven! and yet he has never desired me to read anything to him.

We see by these words that Clitandre is doomed, especially after he has refused Armande's offer to marry him, if he cannot be satisfied with "a flame pure and clear like a celestial fire."

SCENE III.

Trissotin appears and speaks with characteristic pedantry:

Trissotin. I come to announce you great news. We have had a narrow escape while we slept. A world has passed all along us, and fell right across our vortex. If in its way it had met with our earth it would have dashed us to pieces like so much glass.

Clitandre replies to Trissotin with irony and good sense, especially when he says, speaking of pedants:

"These wretched scribblers get it into their little heads that to be printed and bound in calf makes them at once important personages in the state; that with their pens they regulate the destiny of crowns; that at the least mention of their productions pensions ought to be poured down upon them; that the eyes of the whole universe are fixed upon them, and the glory of their name spread everywhere. They think themselves prodigies of learning because they know what others have said before them; because for thirty years they have had eyes and ears, and have employed nine or ten thousand nights or so in cramming themselves with Greek and Latin, and in filling their heads with the indiscriminate plunder of all the old rubbish which lies scattered in books. They always seem intoxicated with their own knowledge, and for all merit are rich in importunate babble. Unskilful in everything, void of common sense, and full of absurdity and impertinence, they decoy everywhere true learning and knowledge."

Philaminte is enraged at the words of Clitandre; she decides that Henriette shall marry Trissotin this very evening and kindly invites Clitandre to the wedding. The unfortunate lovers hardly trust Chrysale, who promises his support, and rely only upon their constancy to one another.

ACT V.

SCENE I.

HENRIETTE has a conversation with Trissotin and speaks to him in the most noble and womanly manner. The wretch rejects her pathetic appeal to his feelings, and the courageous girl declares that she will never marry him.

SCENES III. TO V.

Chrysale seems to have a little more courage and resists his wife for some time. He tells the notary that Clitandre is to be Henriette's husband, while Philaminte says that it is to be Trissotin.

At length Chrysale is silenced by his wife and there seems to be no more hope for Clitandre and Henriette. Ariste, however, imagines a stratagem which brings out clearly Trissotin's rascality. Philaminte and Chrysale receive letters announcing to one that she has lost her lawsuit and to the other that his bankers have failed. Philaminte retains her philosophy and says, showing Trissotin:

Philaminte. His wealth will be sufficient for us and for him.

This proposition does not please the magnanimous Trissotin, and he replies:

Trissotin. No, madam; cease, I pray you, from pressing this affair further. I see that everybody is opposed to this marriage, and I have no intention of forcing the wills of others.

Philaminte is astounded at Trissotin's baseness, but Clitandre offers her all that he possesses. Henriette believes that now she is poor and says that she loves Clitandre enough not to burden him with her adversity. Ariste announces that the letters are false and that it is a stratagem to test Trissotin.

Now that Philaminte no longer opposes the marriage of Henriette and Clitandre Chrysale triumphs and tells the notary:

Chrysale. Now, sir, execute my orders, and draw up the contract in accordance with what I said.

The conclusion of the play, unlike that of most of Molière's comedies, is admirable and shows the wonderful genius of the author, his wit, his knowledge of the human heart, equaled only by William Shakespeare, the author of "Hamlet."

THE WOMEN CHARACTERS OF MOLIÈRE.

BY MARGUERITE MERINGTON.

IN the first rank of the world's dramatists and comic writers, satirist and scholar, wit, humanitarian, as was Molière, what is the part and what are the parts that he assigns to womankind in the pictures of life he puts upon the stage?

A comparison with the women characters of Shakespeare inevitably suggests itself, but must be discarded at the outset, for Shakespeare's creations, like the passions he portrays, are on a gigantic scale, while the people of Molière rarely rise above the stature of the average human being. Also it is to be noticed that in Molière the feminine rôles instead of standing out in bold relief, with the strong contrasting individualities of Beatrice, Portia, Rosalind, take their color from the group of plays to which they severally belong. There are the women of the satires and of the comedies of manners, the heroines of the romances transplanted from Spanish or Italian soil, and those of the classic myths done into French for the amusement of Versailles. But within clearly established limitations every type is real, every example bears the closest scrutiny, every creation is the work of a great master.

For the exploitation of a heroine as such a love story is essential in a comedy, but as in Molière love pure and simple is rarely the dominating theme, it naturally follows that the heroine is rarely the personage of the play. Taking the group of which "L'Avare," "Tartuffe," "Le Malade Imaginaire," and "Le Bourgeois Gentilhomme" are shining examples, the motif is the vice or foible of an elderly man and the plot is worked out on a love story of a rather conventional character. L'Avare himself, Le Malade Imaginaire, Le Bourgeois Gentilhomme, and Orgon, the victim of Tartuffe, are all men of advanced years, heads of families. Each has a daughter, young, lovely, and accomplished. Each

daughter loves, and is beloved by, a youth, amiable, virtuous, and devoted. Each father has picked out a son-in-law according to his own tastes, which never happen to be his daughter's, and each father is ultimately outwitted through some reactionary movement of his own foible and is prevailed upon accordingly to bless the rightful lovers. Harpagon,¹ the miser, of course chooses a wealthy suitor for Élise; Argan, the hypochondriac, decides on a doctor for Angélique; Orgon, Tartuffe's dupe, wishes to give Mariane to that sanctimonious sinner, while Le Bourgeois Gentilhomme naturally has a marquis in his eye for his Lucile.

These young girls are all sisters in kind and character. They have charming comedy scenes, in which they profess their love, generally to a faithful waiting-maid whose ready wit brings about a happy solution of their troubles, or in which they exchange vows of eternal constancy with their lovers; scenes in which they either defy their fathers or implore them, preferring death or a convent to an unloved husband, and occasionally piquant scenes in which their lovers appear in disguise and make love to them under the very nose of a stern but easily bamboozled father.

In "Le Malade Imaginaire" there is a pretty picture of daughterly affection. Argan, exasperated by Angélique's refusal to give up her Cléante, decides to make his will in favor of his second wife, Béline, a deceitful, scheming woman, who humors her husband's fancied ailments with an eye to his bank account. Toinette, the shrewd, faithful maidservant who contradicts Argan as no one else dares, suggests that he try Béline's sincerity by feigning death. Angélique has not scrupled to deceive her father by receiving her Cléante as a singing master and avowing her love for him loud and lyrically before Argan and a roomful of

people, who mistook the performance for a singing lesson; but nevertheless Angélique is overcome with grief and penitence on hearing the rumor of her father's death, renounces Cléante, and decides to expiate her disobedience in a convent. Béline, on the other hand, is enraptured at her supposed widowhood and prepares to lay hands on Argan's ready money—but Argan comes very much to life, and all ends as it should.

In this play there is the one child's part Molière has put upon the stage—that of Louison. Argan questions the little girl to learn if Angélique receives visits from Cléante, but as Louison will not betray her sister he prepares to whip her. At the first swish of the rod Louison lies down stiff and stark, apparently lifeless. Argan, a prey to hypochondria, bursts into lamentations for his child. When she feels that he has been sufficiently punished, "There, there, papa! Don't cry! I am not quite dead," says Louison.

Nicole, the waiting-maid in "Le Bourgeois Gentilhomme," is a counterpart of Toinette, but Nicole's task to bring her play to a happy conclusion is easier, because Lucile's love affair with her Cléonte² has the sanction of her mother, Mme. Jourdain,³ a homely, sensible *bourgeoise*. It is not as difficult as it might seem to introduce Cléonte into the house disguised as the son of the grand Turk and to obtain Jourdain's consent to his marriage with Lucile.

"Le Tartuffe" stands out with a strong group of women characters. There is the inevitable and delightful waiting-maid, Dorine, and there is the mother-in-law, Mme. Pernelle, who merely by the little speech to each member of the family as she takes leave after a call makes us understand all their idiosyncrasies better than pages of description. Pinero has touched the same note in the bishop's wife of "The Benefit of the Doubt." As a variation on the usual love scene Molière gives the young girl Mariane a piquant quarrel with her adoring and adored Valère, whom she later marries, though her father had designed her for Tartuffe. The real heroine is Orgon's wife, Elmire, a calm, sweet character de-

void of passion, who is forced, against her natural good taste, to permit the shameless advances of the hypocrite Tartuffe that Orgon's eyes may be opened to the real nature of the guest whom he is harboring to the ruin of his home.

In the romantic comedies of intrigue, such as "Les Fourberies de Scapin" and "L'Étourdi," the types are less sharply differentiated and the heroines are beautiful slave-ladies who turn out to be the daughters of noblemen.

"Le Dépit Amoureux" gives us a maiden, Ascagne,⁴ who has been brought up as a boy to save an inheritance to her family. Being apparently her sister's brother there are complications with two eligible lovers—fortunately one apiece!—and there is one strong scene in which Lucile has to defend her good name, which has been called into question by her brother-sister's vagaries. Like Rosalind, Ascagne does her own wooing, and successfully. It is a good play, but lacks the poetic charm of the comedy of "Arden."

The workings of love in these plays are along the lines of comedy intrigue, with the conditions of family life as the obstacles to be overcome, rather than a development of the passion with any psychic movement. The dialogue is spirited and natural, Molière having discarded the stilted style of the romantic models then in vogue for something more akin to nature.

Shakespeare, whose married life seems to have been one of calm, made a tragedy of jealousy. Molière, who lived daily tragedies through jealousy of his inconstant wife, turned the sufferings he experienced into material for many a merry comedy.

Célimène,⁵ the brilliant though wholly unsympathetic heroine of "Le Misanthrope," causes her gloomy lover unspeakable pangs through her fondness for admiration. But can we blame a lady whose lover is a misanthrope, and who is herself a widow, only twenty, with a much-applauded wit? Her foils are Arsinoé,⁶ a Tartuffe in petticoats, and Éliante, a young person who says and does sensible things from beginning to end and who marries well into the bargain.

Jealousy in love is also the theme in "Don Garcie de Navarre," but as the very well-bred and well-conducted Done Elvire gave the don no cause whatever for five acts of jealous suffering it is small wonder that the play was not a popular success.

"L'École des Maris" teaches a lesson to guardians who are educating their wards to be their wives. The brothers Ariste and Sganarelle differ widely as to the way to bring up the two sisters Isabelle and Léonor, whom they intend to marry. Sganarelle is strict, jealous, and exacting with his special Isabelle, while Ariste is generous and indulgent to his chosen Léonor. Léonor rewards her tutor's trust with a sincere affection, and delivers herself of some neat little speeches on her pleasure in wedding a man of sense and heart, though many years her senior. It is interesting to know that Molière entrusted the rôle of Léonor to Armande Béjart,⁷ the young girl whom later he at the age of forty made his wife. Isabelle, a graceful, sprightly figure on the scene, of course chooses a lover for herself, and marries him by stratagem—to the eternal confusion of the race of Sganarelles.

Agnès, of "L'École des Femmes," stands out a distinct creation among the women of Molière. Arnolphe, a jealous, priggish egotist, has adopted her to train—not educate—her to be his wife. He wishes her to be stupid and would have preferred her to be plain that she may not be attractive to other men. For accomplishments she is to sew, say her prayers, and be submissive to her husband. One Horace, a friend of Arnolphe's at that, discovers her retreat. Agnès' lack of learning does not prevent her being bewitchingly naïve, spontaneous, and natural, and a fine young love grows up between the two. Agnès is so innocently ingenuous that she confides the whole affair to Arnolphe. He, infuriated, bids her throw a paving-stone at Horace, who is watching beneath her balcony. The obedient Agnès does so, but softens the deadly blow with a love letter wrapped about the missile—either the letter was long or the paving-stone small!—a letter tender enough to cure any hurt it may inflict. Of course love

laughs at locksmiths in the end. Agnès' father, supposed to be a peasant and in heaven, comes on the scene alive and a nobleman, and marries Agnès to Horace while the discomfited Arnolphe stands by.

"George Dandin," the comedy expanded from the one-act farce "Sganarelle" was attacked by Molière's enemies because in it he paints a woman unfaithful to her marriage vows. His defenders truly retort that there is nothing alluring in his presentation of the sin, it being one of the excellencies of the comedy that the shameless Angélique is a wholly repellent character. This play gives a highly comic sketch of an elderly dame of oppressively lofty rank, the mother of Angélique, who can only forget that she is the wife of a De Sotenville long enough to remember that she was born a La Prudoterie. The *suivante*⁸ of the play is the bad maid of a bad mistress, and the three are utterly devoid of heart.

Jealousy lies between Amphitryon and his wife Alcène⁹ in the play which bears the former's name. As in the Greek myth it is Jupiter who is trying to usurp the husband's place, but Alcène is a true and devoted wife and the god is finally obliged to go back to Olympus and leave home-keeping folks alone.

Psyché, of the play begun and indicated by Molière, becomes a glowing creature in the lines attributed to Pierre Corneille. Love appears on the boards as a stage lover, and gods and goddesses bless his union with the maiden Psyché made immortal. There is a strong sketch of two jealous sisters who conspire against Psyché's life and whom the gods sentenced to hard labor in Hades for the crime.

"Mélécerte," the unfinished pastoral, gives a dainty picture of a shepherd offering a sparrow as a sweetheart-token to the shepherdess of his vows. "Les Précieuses Ridicules," "Les Femmes Savantes," and "La Comtesse D'Escarbagnas"¹⁰ form a strong group in which the foibles of women come under the satirist's lash. La Comtesse D'Escarbagnas is a sketch of a country lady whose head is turned with one short visit to Paris, and whose subsequent

life is a vain effort to live up to the manners of the metropolis.

The satire of "*Les Précieuses Ridicules*" was leveled at a coterie conspicuous for romantic sentimentality of thought, clothed in speech as bombastic and affected as was that of the Elizabethan euphuists. Madelon and Cathos, who serve as examples of this exaggerated preciosity,¹¹ are the daughter and the niece of a worthy tradesman, Gorgibus.¹² Sentimental as Lydia Languish, they are shocked, however, at the commonplace conventionality of marriage, and chide Gorgibus for his insupportable vulgarity in entertaining two excellent proposals on their behalf. They expect some day to learn that they are of illustrious birth, and meanwhile they change their simple names to the more lofty sounding ones Aminte and Polyxène. Sophisticated as they think themselves, they are easy victims to a trick by which the valets of the suitors they have flouted appear before them disguised as men of rank, with a dazzling parade of mock learning and spurious adventure. The Vicar of Wakefield's artless daughters are not more readily imposed on by the pretended "ladies of quality from town" than are Aminte and Polyxène by their lovers' serving men.

"*Les Femmes Savantes*" is a five-act comedy, much the same in character as the one-act "*Précieuses Ridicules*," but less farcical and cutting deeper. Affectation, bad taste, the neglect of the first duties of life for a tawdry show of wisdom, are mirrored with a wit that makes the play as comic as the underlying thing is serious. The first entrance of Philaminte, the mother of the household, paints the domestic situation to which the would-be pedantry of the womenkind has brought the family. Philaminte is chasing Martine, the cook, from the house, for Martine, though an excellent cook and a shrewd, trustworthy soul to boot, is liable to make occasional mistakes in grammar. The aunt, Bélise, wants days and months to be reckoned by ides and kalends;¹³ the oldest daughter, Armande, exhorts her younger sister, Henriette—a nice girl with a wholesome love affair on hand—to give up an earthly husband and

wed philosophy; the three ladies together desire to found a college to remove improper syllables from proper words. A very questionable person is introduced to them as a student of Greek. "He knows Greek! Good heavens, he knows Greek!" they cry, transported with emotion. "My dear, we must kiss him for his Greek!" And they do. That Molière meant no slur to woman's mind is clear, since Henriette—who marries her lover in the end—has some of the aptest speeches of the play. It is interesting to know that the rôle of Martine, the cook, was not only drawn from Molière's own cook Martine but was actually played by the original.

The romantic play of "*Don Juan*" gives us a sad and stately Done Elvire, who appears once in the first act to reproach her lover for neglect and again, later on, to pray for his conversion. Two of the don's victims, Charlotte and Mathurine, who are village coquettes with a provincial dialect, are sketched with much naturalness.

The honors of "*La Princesse d'Élide*" go to the Spanish Moreto, from whose charming comedy "*Disdain with Disdain*" Molière adapted it. Less important because further removed from real life than many of the plays, it must be remembered as one of the rare instances where Molière does not open the drama with the heart affair well under way. Here we have actually the birth of love. The young princess has contemptuously spurned suitors by the score, but one, Euryale, the bravest and most illustrious, decides to meet her with her own weapons and vanquish Her Highness' disdain with an assumed disdain. The plan succeeds admirably; the young lady is at first piqued by Euryale's indifference to accomplishments which she rather ostentatiously exhibits. But—greater crime than ignoring her dancing and singing—he pretends to fall in love with one of her maids of honor, even going so far as to propose for the young lady's hand. The princess mistakes for hate the emotion with which she learns this news. Through hate, as she fancies, for Euryale she begs the king, her father,

to prevent the match. Her sagacious father instructs her in the real nature of her feeling toward Euryale, and the princess, her heart awakened, mourns however that this uncomfortable god Love is not a beast of the woods to be slain with her huntress arrow. But she marries Euryale.

Briefly summing up, it may be said that Molière does high honor to woman's intelligence and woman's heart. Women, clever and witty, abound in the comedies, and Molière's people breathe, move, speak. They are not puppets. The jealous woman and the prude are foils to their high-minded sisters and are as unlovely here as they always are in the play behind the play.

Full justice is done to wifely love, and the one picture of an unfaithful wife is not made alluring. The fidelity of the woman-servant to her employer is conspicuously painted, often being used as an essential part of the machinery of the plot. Moments of lofty personal distinction are few. Of great maternal love there are no instances, nor are there opportunities given for love's great sacrifices. Filial love is not absent. Love, fresh, young, happy, natural, abounds.

From the standpoint of the women characters the writer's personal generalization would be that while he is not—who is?—the universal Shakespeare, he is still the "incomparable Molière."

THE STORY OF MOLIERE'S LIFE.

BY PROFESSOR JAMES A. HARRISON, LL.D., L.H.D.

OF THE UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA.

THE 15th of January, 1622, is a memorable day in the literary calendar of France, for on that day one of the brightest of Parisians was baptized.

"Bright" is an appellation—an Americanism—peculiarly appropriate to Molière, a man and a personality who filled a whole reign with intellectual radiance. He was typically Parisian, too—even more so than those other marvelous types of Paris, Villon, Voltaire, Regnard, Beaumarchais, Béranger, Scribe,¹ each of whom stands for something typically and intensely Parisian—wit, sauciness, skepticism, grace, or brilliant dialogue.

Molière, however, was not the babe's real name. "Poquelin" stands behind Molière as "Arouet" stands behind Voltaire. The Poquelins were hereditary upholsterers, Molière sharing a modest merchant or professional ancestry with such men as Franklin and Jasmin, Béranger and Gray, Dickens and Cervantes, Chaucer and Schiller. Printer, barber, hat-maker, reporter, soldier, vintner, *tapissier*,² what not, the fairy godmother cares not, just so her favorite child receives and welcomes the golden gift of genius.

In Paris Molière grew up, around the edges of the market where in Paris, as in the Athenian *agora*,³ all the city life gathered and sparkled and bubbled in '32. When he was only ten years old he lost his mother; to this has been ascribed the fact that in the wide and fertile stretch of his comedies, crowded with every variety of piquant, pretty, solemn, or sunny figure, the true mother is absent, but the stepmother abounds, the widower is frequent, the twice-married father (like Molière's own) is held up to omnipresent ridicule.

Nicolas Poquelin, the father, became upholsterer to the king. And in and out of the palace and purloins young Jean Baptiste Poquelin ran, noticing, grimacing, drinking in wit, wisdom, experience, full of the sight of fair women and gallant men, until at sixteen he entered the Jesuit college at Clermont. The shop-boy had always been passionately addicted to the play, whither his fond grandfather Cressé constantly carried him.

At that time there was an old theater in the fashionable quarter called the Hôtel de Bourgogne, where the "Enfants sans Souci"⁴ and the "Sots"⁵ had left delightful

reminiscences of themselves in the way of farces and *soties*⁶ and horseplay, and the ancient pieces of Garnier⁷ and Hardy, Mairet,⁸ and even Corneille, wrung laughter or tears from the *gamins*. Here above all—amidst the Theater of the Fair of St. Germain—shone the famous buffoons Tur-lupin, Gros, Guillaume, Gaultier Gurguille,⁹ and here Molière, who began with farces as Schiller and Goethe began with tragedies, sat and absorbed the fun, the raillery, the brightness, and (it must be confessed) the slime of his maiden efforts in the art of Thespis,¹⁰ the histrionic art which he developed out of these coarse filaments into the sheen and fineness of spun glass.

These were Molière's three schools: the school of life, the school of the Jesuits, and the school of Scaramouch,¹¹ who danced in the public square and cut up buffoon antics before the not over-elect audiences of the Hôtel de Bourgogne.

Of all he learned masterfully. The Ariel-like spirit of Shakespeare and Cervantes had left the earth only six years before it reincarnated itself anew in the mask of Molière, just over the Pyrenees, just over the channel. What was called the *esprit Gaulois*,¹² the quintessence of laughing Old France "half-seas over," half in its cups, began with him a marvelous and delicate process of distillation, refining, like that undergone by coarse saccharine substances, into sweet, clear crystals. Molière's brain was a rare alembic through which these smudgy, often obscene, frequently intolerable, things passed, to emerge as positively brilliant re-creations, different from anything his Italian predecessors or Spanish contemporaries could suggest or furnish. His spirit, like Voltaire's, seems to have been sharpened by whetting against that of the Jesuit fathers. Both his poetic vocation and his general intellectual culture profited by the teachings of Clermont. He became a good humanist, an excellent philosopher, an absorbed reader of the poets, a ravenous imbibor of the Latin wit of Terence.

Above all, at this college he became the friend of the Prince de Conti, which was

perhaps a better thing for him than all the humanism, philosophy, poetry, or wit that the good Jesuits could teach him. In one sense Molière was already an incomparable natural philosopher, of the untaught, useless-to-teach kind, ready-made from the start and only waiting for an opportunity to show the philosophy that was in him. Philosophy of this kind is generally born only in men like Socrates, Aristophanes, or Molière. Learned dissertations exist on the point whether Molière was a pupil of the philosophic Gassendi; abundant evidence exists to show that he derived infinite fun from the jargon, the superciliousness, the unintelligible jabber of the schools. Pancrace, the Aristotelian, Marphurius, the Pyrrhonian, the delicious nonsense of "Les Femmes Savantes" and "Le Bourgeois Gentilhomme" babble delightfully of the green fields where this bee-like genius was at home in early youth and whence he brought honey of that "sardonic" kind that produced a grin.

The serious side of Molière's nature, however, comes out even at this time when his first literary effort resulted in a translation of the noble though arid Epicurean poem of Lucretius, "*De Rerum Natura*."¹³ This was Gassendi's prayer-book. An Epicurean Molière undoubtedly was, but rather of the Lucullian than the Lucretian kind.

At that date too Molière, like Goethe, and James Russell Lowell, and so many celebrated men in their youth, dabbled in law and even, some said, in theology; any skimmer of "Les Fourberies de Scapin" or "Le Malade Imaginaire" will know that his knowledge of lawyers, if not of law, was abounding; and of medicine he knew enough to make his doctors immortal. In 1643, when he was twenty-one, he declared his intention of going on the stage. Just a few years before (1635) the French Academy had been founded; in 1636, when Molière was fourteen, all Paris rang with the beauty of Corneille's "Le Cid"; the lovely verse of "Lycidas" was humming in Milton's brain; Descartes had emitted his wonderful and revolutionizing "Discourse on Method" (1637); and Corneille had

twice more electrified his contemporaries, first with the great pagan drama of "Horace" (1639) and then with the great Christian drama of "Polyeucte," perhaps his masterpiece (1640).

The stage was ripe for a new apparition, of a lighter, laughter-loving kind, after the majestic elocutionary work of Corneille. Racine, seventeen years Molière's junior, was only four years old. Molière had a rare opportunity. Louis XIV.'s warlike triumphs, beginning with Rocroy¹⁴ in 1643, were soon to be paralleled by intellectual triumphs of an even finer sort.

But Molière, like Shakespeare, must learn his art practically as an actor before taking up his keen pen to depict the human nature about him; accordingly he and a number of men and women comrades formed, in 1643, a dramatic company called L'illustre Théâtre. A year after he assumed the stage name of Molière, though all his life long he proudly retained the modest appellation "*tapissier, valet de chambre du roi*,"¹⁵ and described himself simply as a "*bourgeois de Paris*,"¹⁶ as Socrates wanted to be known simply as a "citizen of the world."

The gay little company, full of high hopes, went on a tour of the provinces, but, soon returning, fell into debts and difficulties, and Molière, like Bunyan, like Cervantes, had a taste of prison—the prison of Le Châtelet.¹⁷ Thus ended the "Illustrious Theater," as many another youthful venture had ended—in misadventure.

Molière, one of the wittiest spirits that ever lived, began by playing tragedy, not comedy, as he had begun his literary career not with the sparkling choruses of Aristophanes but with the heavy-wheeled philosophy of Lucretius; and he soon drank the bitter cup that he toyed with. A long apprenticeship of suffering was undergone; like Wilhelm Meister, he spent his *Wanderjahre*¹⁸ in travels, in flitting through France from Bordeaux to Toulouse and Toulouse to Nantes and Rouen, in those swiftly dissolving and recombining theatrical companies that came together and melted asunder like mist.

This "Odyssey of a dozen years" is picturesque but it is painful. The provincial peregrinations of Molière doubtless schooled him abundantly in the observation of character and manners. Now the cities through which he passed, even in legendary form, fight over the brilliant honor he did them; then he slipped through their towered and fantastic streets unobserved, unhonored, and unknown. The busy and boisterous life of the time loved plays and playwrights, and the bright memory of the great Paris comedian associated itself permanently with many a hall and castle and tennis court and *seigneurial salon*¹⁹ by the winding Loire and the rushing Rhone and the silver Garonne as the troupe played under the patronage of the Duc d'Épernon. A phonetic scribe of these days spells the famous name *Morlierre*, thus incidentally telling us how it was pronounced (with short o); "*Sieur Morlière, comédien*," is another transcription of the celebrated pseudonym, belonging to this period.

It is pleasing during all these wanderings in the warm South—the beautiful rose-blooming, olive-crowned *Midi*—to notice the ripening of this precocious genius to which, as to our immortal Will, only about fifty years of existence were allotted, crowded with intense and uninterrupted mental excitement. The Corneilles, the Sophocleses, the Hugos, the Goethes live to be old men, serenely sinking into a beautiful evening-time; but no such lovely vesper sail into cloudless seas conducts "beyond the bar" the alert and quicksilver-like souls of Molière and Shakespeare. Perhaps if Molière had continued to help the king on with his shirts of mornings or had gone on upholstering the palace chambers, like his forefathers, his keen intelligence would not have worn through the fleshly tabernacle so soon, and he too might have landed in the adipose, apoplectic senescence of Renan or Thackeray.

It was at Lyons in 1653 that he became acquainted with the Italian comedies of Grotto, Barbieri, and Secchi,²⁰ and then began the far-reaching influence of Italian burlesque, farce, and intrigue over the

poet, from which he fully emancipated himself only toward the zenith of his career. "L'Étourdi" his first comedy, was the result of this contact.

In 1662 began the tragedy of his life—his love for Armande Béjart, a girl of sixteen when he married her, illustrating signally that fruitful theme "the unhappy loves of men of genius." Tasso, Milton, Socrates, Alfred de Musset, Byron, Bulwer, Dickens—why extend the list of classically celebrated men who join Molière, "married and miserable" or it may be hopelessly in love with unworthy creatures?

This girl led him a terrible dance and doubtless suggested scene after scene in his multiple comedy of human life, where love and jealousy and madness and recriminating bitterness disport themselves with all too personal, all too biographical, intensity. A silly coquette, "Mademoiselle" Molière (as the custom was to call her) could not appreciate the elevated talents, the wonderful versatility, the fertility and inventiveness without end of a man who could lift comedy from the gutter, where the Italians had left it, to a throne where sat in state the superb figures of "Tartuffe," of "Alceste," and of "Célimène."

To reach these delicate and exquisite creations perhaps Molière was obliged to pass through a domestic purgatory in which his own soul should be wrapped as in a Dantesque circle of purifying flame; but he succumbed, still a young man, on the mount of torture. At any rate the personal accent, the voice of the soul speaking out of Dante's flame, wrings the heart as the eloquence of "Le Misanthrope," the agony of the ruined family life in "Tartuffe," the desperately funny scenes, pathetic in their ludicrousness, of "Les Femmes Savantes," fall on the ear and startle the reader like a personal cry for help. The sorrowing, sinking, drowning poet appeals pitifully to his audience in verse of melting beauty, in language that wrung delight from Boileau, and Racine, and the Prince de Condé, and these friends understood how tragic a truth lay beneath the rippling laughter of all these Scapins, Harpagons, Chrysales, and Monsieur Jourdain.

Fortunately, with his masterful pen Molière could write off the miseries of his mind and heart and household. The twenty years from 1653 to 1673 were truly a golden age, a long *annus mirabilis*,²¹ for him, during which brain and imagination worked like an engine and a powerful music filled the world and court of France such as it had never heard before.

What this court was or came gradually to be the interested reader can see in the brilliant "Letters" of Madame de Sévigné, the "Memoirs" of Saint-Simon, the thinly-disguised "Fables" of La Fontaine, and the biting portraits and maxims of La Bruyère and La Rochefoucauld. A corrupt, sparkling, witty, gossip-loving, luxurious "nest" was the Paris of that day when Louis XIV. was young and puissant, and an astonishing wealth of talent filled the kingdom with masterpieces of art, architecture, engineering, dramatic composition, and literary prose. A brief glimpse into Voltaire's delightful "Siècle de Louis Quatorze" reveals a gallery of intellectual wealth equal to those famous galleries of Versailles soon to rise eighteen miles from Paris in all their gorgeous extravagance.

As Voltaire reigned the supreme intellectual king of the eighteenth century, so Molière was king in the seventeenth, in the more fascinating realm of comedy, in the airier principality of wit, in the light and spiritual kingdom of laughter. His marvelous triumphal progress from his first four comedies of intrigue in the Italian-Spanish manner, ("L'Étourdi," "Le Dépit Amoureux," "Sganarelle," "Les Précieuses Ridicules," the latter a miraculous anticipation of the New Woman), through the profound comedy of character and manners (*L'École des Maris*, "*L'École des Femmes*") to the twin masterpieces of high comedy ("Le Misanthrope," "Tartuffe"), all in the course of twenty years, recalls that exquisite ceiling of Guido's²² in which Apollo is king and all heaven is flushed with radiance and color, in a poetic auroral march.

And he was probably even more successful as an *impresario*,²³ an arranger of *fêtes* and ballets and diversions for the king—im-

promptus, pastoral dramas, and pictorial nothings—than as the delineator of finished types like Arnolphe, Don Juan, Harpagon, or Chrysale. His versatility helped him to a knowledge of every stage detail, and what he didn't know he divined. He was indeed, as Boileau called him, "erudite" both in all these things and in his familiarity with the Latin, Spanish, and Italian stage-craft from which he generously borrowed and transplanted. De Visé and Cotin cried "Thief!" as Edgar Poe hooted at Longfellow; but as the critic Nisard observes, the copper that he stole turned in his hands into gold: the Plautinian or Terentian original could with difficulty be traced. It would take a subtle analysis indeed to turn back the golden honey in the jar into the flowers and pollen from which it came!

Tennyson and Shakespeare are thieves of the same royal kind as Molière and Corneille and Horace. Faguet in his admirable presentation of Molière truly says that he was the creator of French comedy, though against this Corneille, with his earlier "Menteur," might well have something to say. It is certain that in the throng of illustrious men that distinguished this reign he stands

out as the most generally, genially, and gloriously gifted.

In the plenitude of his powers, after the swift composition of nearly thirty works, many of the first rank, this man whom the Sun King loved to honor and to whose first-born he stood godfather fell in convulsions on the stage while he was playing—too realistically, alas!—the rôle of "Le Malade Imaginaire." The audience roared at the realism of the scene, not dreaming that it was a death-scene of the most tragical character they were witnessing, too late realizing the irreparable loss to Paris, to France, and to the world. And the disgraceful sequel: refused burial in consecrated ground by the archbishop of Paris, the body of Molière lay for four days unburied, until at last it was grudgingly consigned to the cemetery of St. Joseph.

A little over a hundred years later a committee of the French Academy, recognizing the great luster he had shed on France, decreed a sort of posthumous admission to the shade of the mighty comedian, and wrote underneath his bust this proud inscription:

"Rien ne manque à sa gloire; il manquait à la nôtre!"

Nothing is wanting to his

L'AVARE (THE MISER).

BY JEAN C. BRACQ, A. B.

PROFESSOR OF MODERN LANGUAGES, VASSAR COLLEGE.

THE dependence of great writers upon co-workers, dead or living, is now a fact generally accepted. Writers of genius, and especially dramatic writers, have not only seized the current expressions of their day and assimilated the contemporary thought, but they have also borrowed specific works which become the web of new creations. "Le Cid" was the idealization of a Spanish drama which had itself already been the theme of literature. Racine took from the most perfect historical pictures of Tacitus his "Britannicus"; from the most exquisite masterpieces of the Grecian drama his "Andromaque" and his "Iphigénia," not to speak of his "Esther" and his

"Athalie," taken from Hebrew literature. Even Molière, the most original of French playwrights, evolved his "L'Avare" from the "Aulularia" of Plautus.

This use of plots furnished either by historians or by other dramatists is far from detrimental. It is the coöperation of the past with the present, the creative energies of an individual elaborating into new and living forms subjects which have not reached their highest expression or which have ceased to have a deserved currency in literature. Nor is this done at the expense of originality in the truest sense of the term—a high artistic creation. "Le Cid" of Corneille is more original than his "Mélite,"

the "Andromaque" of Racine than his "Bajazet," and "L'Avare" of Molière than his "Les Femmes Savantes." A comparative study of "L'Avare" with its source brings home these principles as well as the intrinsic merits of this play of Molière.

Plautus introduces the "Aulularia" with the monologue of the household god, who through sympathy for the daughter of Euclio, the miser, leads him, in a miraculous way, doubtless, to find a pot of gold. This discovery has a most disturbing influence upon Euclio, who is seized with extraordinary restlessness on account of his fear of losing his treasure. He tortures his servant, Staphyla, by his miserly aberrations. By his conversation he arouses the suspicion of those from whom he wishes to conceal the fact that he possesses a treasure. A wealthy bachelor, Megadorus, a most reasonable, frugal, and thrifty man, asks Euclio's daughter in marriage. The miser erroneously suspects that Megadorus has heard of his concealed wealth, but still he consents, provided the bridegroom will meet the expenses of the wedding. It is arranged that the marriage shall take place that evening. Megadorus sends cooks and musicians to Euclio's house to prepare the feast, but the miser brutally treats them to blows. He no longer believes his treasure to be secure in his house, and so he conceals it in the Temple of Faith, but as he discovers Strobilus, the slave of Lyconides, in hiding there he transfers the money to the grove of Sylvanus, another divinity. This act does not escape Strobilus' notice, and later on the gold does not escape his hand.

In the meantime Megadorus, having heard that the daughter of Euclio has been disgraced at the festival of Ceres by Lyconides, his nephew, declines to marry her. Lyconides comes to inform Euclio of his uncle's decision, and to ask for himself the hand of Euclio's daughter, at the very moment when the miser discovers that his money has been stolen. Lyconides' plea must begin with a confession of wrong to Euclio's daughter, which is interpreted by the distracted miser as the acknowledgement of the theft of the

pot of gold. The equivoque is continued in a very interesting dialogue until Euclio discovers the reality of his twofold misfortune. Lyconides forces his slave to confess that he has stolen the gold. The end of Plautus' piece has been lost, but we know by the acrostic argument which is prefixed to the play that Lyconides recovers the gold and returns it to Euclio, who not only gives him his daughter but also the pot of gold for his dowry. Thereby the purpose of the household god is realized and the miser's daughter has the enjoyment of the gold.

Harpagon, the miser of Molière, secures his wealth by the ordinary process of acquisition and by usury. His parsimonious spirit has disastrous consequences upon his children. His daughter, Élise, loves a young nobleman, Valère, who can find no better way to reach Harpagon's heart and secure his consent to their marriage than by becoming his intendant and ostensibly approving his penuriousness at every turn. His son, Cléante, who loves a most worthy young lady, also deceives him. Harpagon is kept in a constant state of anxiety and fear by the thought of the insecurity of a large sum of money which, after the manner of the times, he has hidden in his garden.

In addition to this he has matrimonial plans for all. Beginning with himself, he announces to his children that he is about to marry a lovely young woman, who is none other than his son's loved Mariane. This son shall marry an unknown but wealthy widow and his daughter shall wed Seigneur Anselme, not less than fifty years of age, because he is rich and asks no dowry. As she demurs, he asks Valère, his intendant, to convince her, and so he does, but not in the way expected by Harpagon. Cléante, kept in stingy restraints, and wishing to elope with Mariane in the case his father persists in his intention, attempts to secure money from an unknown usurer, at enormously high rates of interest. When the usurer and the borrower are suddenly brought together, father and son stand face to face.

Harpagon wishes to welcome his *fiancée* with becoming preparations, but his hospi-

tality must not cost anything. At last, during the visit of Mariane, which is a long and unconscious display of his avarice, he discovers that his money, stolen by his son's servant, is missing. His expressions of anger and despair are almost identical with those of Euclio. Harpagon's mind momentarily loses its equilibrium. His cook, Master Jacques, who has a spite against Valère, accuses him of the theft. Valère, thinking that he has been betrayed in his scheme to secure Élise's hand, admits his design. Harpagon understands that Valère confesses to the theft of his money. The expressions of love for Élise are taken as avowals of unpardonable liberties with his cash-box.

At last the *quid pro quo*¹ ceases. Harpagon urges Siegneur Anselme to wrest Élise from Valère. Anselme declines to marry a young woman against her will. In the discussion which follows between the two suitors of Élise, Mariane discovers that Valère is her brother, and Anselme that the two are his children. Cléante thereupon comes and tells his father that if he will give up Mariane and allow him to marry her he will recover his money. Harpagon consents, provided Anselme will require no dowry, will pay the expenses of the two weddings, and will buy him a complete suit of clothes for the occasion. At last Valère and Élise, Cléante and Mariane are happy. Anselme rushes out to see his wife, whom he recovers after years of a hopeless separation, and Harpagon to contemplate his gold.

The "Aulularia" has a sort of supernatural beginning, and the end is the realization of a supernatural purpose. There is no dramatic progression in the play and none of those dramatic surprises which rivet the attention. The interest lags. The steps in its development are artificial and suggest mosaics rather than paintings. "L'Avare" takes one into the very quick of life. It unfolds itself naturally from the acts of the Miser. He affects first the lives of his children, then of his servants, and lastly of the outer world. The Euclio of Plautus ceases to be a miser as the piece

ends. Harpagon, after a thorough exhibition of an unsurpassed avarice, shows at last an absolute subjection to it. Notwithstanding serious imperfections the plot of "L'Avare" is animated, varied, interesting, and as a whole most felicitous.

The psychological excellence of this play is patent. It introduces us at once to the fundamental characteristics of Harpagon which became determining forces upon his children, his servants, and outsiders. It has been objected that no such man as Harpagon has ever been known; that may be true, and yet it is certain that every miser will find in Harpagon the leading traits of his dominant passion.

In "L'Avare" Molière was true to the part which he played, in some ways, as a great social and moral reformer. The influence of this play must have been strongly felt, as avarice was one of the common French vices of the times. Independently of the fact that the data of "L'Avare" are more moral than those of the "Aulularia," Molière exhibits admirably the rapacity of the father compelling his daughter and son to deceive him. The condition of despair into which Harpagon's avarice has driven his son leaves him no other alternative than prodigality, and when he is irresistibly thrown into the hands of usurers, by the law of retribution Harpagon, attempting to swindle a stranger, robs his own son, that is, himself. The discourse of Valère to Harpagon upon the seriousness of marriage is a most eloquent *reductio ad absurdum*² of literature against the evil of alliances made by parents for their children regardless of them. After this came the exposition of the way in which Harpagon is deceived through moral self-blinding.

In the dialogue with one of his servants, Master Jacques, is set forth the hypocrisy of avarice. The Miser, riveted to his greediness, wishes to appear generous. All through the play one sees the evils of avarice crushing the moral life of this tinsel Laocoön³ and his children. Molière, nowhere more than in this play, has given the measure of his understanding of the working power of passion, the complexity and correlation of

evil volitions in man, and the law of moral or immoral increment whereby one's moral nature becomes intensified.

The translation of the plays of Molière cannot render the wit nor the subtleties of his art any more than a photograph can give us the shades of light and color of the paintings of masters. Still a fair measure of his artistic power can be conveyed by a few extracts. To that end the following are given, but simply as fragments of a most interesting whole.*

We will begin with a speech of La Flèche, a friend of Frosine, a woman of questionable integrity who has prepared the marriage of Harpagon with Mariane and expects a reward for her work.

La Flèche. You don't know Harpagon. Harpagon is of all beings the least humane, the mortal of all mortals the hardest and closest. There is no service great enough to arouse his gratitude sufficiently to open his purse. Yes, praise, esteem, kindness you may have to any amount, but as to money, it is of no use. There is nothing more dry, more barren, than his grace and his courtesy, and *give* is a word for which he has such a dislike that he never says "I give," but "I *lend* you a good morning."

Frosine. Well, but I know the art of fleeing men. I possess the secret of reaching their tenderness, of tickling their heart, and of finding their weak spot.

La F. Those are of no use here. I defy you to soften, as far as money is concerned, the man we are speaking of. Upon that point he is a Turk, of a Turkishness to drive any one to despair; and one could starve in his presence and he would not budge an inch. In short, he loves money better than reputation, honor, and virtue, and the mere sight of any one making demands upon his purse sends him into convulsions; it is striking him on his tenderest spot, it is piercing him to the heart, it is tearing out his very vitals.

The scene in which Harpagon refers to the marriage of his daughter with Anselme to Valère, her lover, is a rare bit of irony.

Harpagon. I wish to give her [his daughter] to-night, for husband, a man as rich as he is good; and the hussy tells me to my face that she won't have him. What do you say to that?

Valère. What do I say to it?

Har. Yes.

Val. Eh! Eh!

Har. What?

Val. I say that I am on the whole of your opinion, and that you cannot but be right; yet perhaps she is not altogether wrong, and—

Har. How so? Seigneur Anselme is an excellent match; he is a nobleman, and a gentleman too, kind, dignified, judicious, who rolls in wealth. He has no children left from his first marriage. Could she find anything better?

Val. That is true. But she might say that you are going rather fast, and that she ought to have at least a little time to consider whether her inclination could reconcile itself to—

Har. It is an occasion which I must grasp by the forelock. I have a chance here which I should not find elsewhere; and he agrees to take her without dowry.

Val. Without dowry?

Har. Yes.

Val. Ah! I have nothing more to say. That is an overwhelming reason before which she must yield.

Har. It is quite a saving to me.

Val. Assuredly; that cannot be gainsaid. It is true that your daughter might represent to you that marriage is a more serious matter than people are disposed to believe; that the happiness or misery of a whole life depends on it, and that a bond which is to last till death should not be lightly entered into.

Har. Without dowry?

Val. You are right. That must decide everything, doubtless. There are those who might tell you that on such occasions the affection of a daughter should be consulted, and that this great difference of ages, of disposition, and of feelings might be the cause of regrettable occurrences.

Har. Without dowry!

Val. Ah, there is no reply to that! That's well known. Who in the world could impugn that? I do not mean to say that there are not many fathers who would not set a much higher value on the happiness of their daughters than on the money they may give for their marriage; who would not like to sacrifice them to their own interests, and who would above all things try to see in marriage that sweet conformity of tastes which is a sure pledge of honor, tranquillity, and joy; and that—

Har. Without dowry!

Val. It is true. That closes the lips to everything. Without dowry! How can any one resist such an argument?

We will look at Harpagon again, sketched in a lighter mood, as he prepares for the reception of his *fiancée*. To Dame Claude he says:

Har. To you I commit the task of cleaning everywhere; but above all be careful not to rub the furniture too hard for fear of wearing it out. Besides

*The translation used is a revision of that of C. H. Wall.

this, I put the bottles under your charge during supper, and if any one of them is missing, or if anything gets broken, you will be responsible for it, and pay it out of your wages. . . . To you Brindavoine, and to you, La Merluche, belongs the duty of washing the glasses and of serving the drink; but only when people are thirsty, and not according to the custom of certain impertinent lackeys, who urge them to drink, and put the idea into their heads when they are not thinking about it. Wait until you have been asked several times, and remember always to have plenty of water.

La Merluche. Shall we take off our overalls, sir?

Har. Yes, when you see the guests coming, but be careful not to spoil your clothes.

Brindavoine. You know, sir, that one of my doublets is covered with a large stain of oil from the lamp.

La Mer. And I, sir, that my breeches are all torn behind, and that, saving your presence, one sees—

Har. (to La Merluche). Peace! Turn carefully toward the wall and always face the company. (*To Brindavoine, showing him how he is to hold his hat before his doublet to hide the stain of oil.*) And you, always hold your hat in this fashion when you wait on the guests.

Har. Now, Master Jacques, I have kept you for the last.

Jac. Is it to your coachman, sir, or to your cook you wish to speak?—for I am both.

Har. To both.

Jac. But to which first?

Har. To the cook.

Jac. Then wait a minute, if you please. (*Master Jacques takes off his stable-coat and appears dressed as a cook.*)

Har. What the deuce is the meaning of all this?

Jac. Now I am at your service.

Har. I have decided, Master Jacques, to give a supper to-night.

Jac. (aside). Great wonder!

Har. Tell me, can you give us a good treat?

Jac. Yes, if you give me plenty of money.

Har. The deuce! Always money! It looks as if they [the servants] had nothing else to say than money, money, money! Always that same word in their mouths, money! They always speak of money! It's their pillow companion, money!

Val. (to Jacques). Never did I hear such an impertinent answer! Would you call it wonderful to provide good cheer with plenty of money? Is it not the easiest thing in the world? The most stupid could do as much. But an able man should talk of a good supper with little money.

Jac. A good supper with little money?

Val. Yes.

Jac. (to Valère). Very well, Mr. Intendant, you will oblige me greatly by telling me your secret, and also, if you like, by filling my place as cook; for you keep on meddling here and wish to be a factotum.

Har. Hold your tongue. What shall we want?

Jac. Ask that of Mr. Intendant, who will give you good cheer with little money.

Har. Stop! I am speaking to you and expect you to answer me.

Jac. How many will there be at your table?

Har. Eight or ten; but you must reckon only for eight. When there is enough for eight there is enough for ten.

Val. That is evident.

Jac. Very well, then; you must have four tureens of soup and five side dishes; soups, entrées—

Har. What! do you mean to feed a whole town?

Jac. Roast—

Har. (putting his hand over Master Jacques's mouth). Ah, wretch! you are eating up all my substance.

Jac. Entremets—

Har. (again putting his hand on Jacques's mouth). More still?

Val. (to Jacques). Do you mean to kill everybody? And has your master invited people in order to destroy them with overfeeding? Go and read a little the precepts of health, and ask the doctors if there is anything so hurtful to man as excess in eating.

Har. He is right.

Val. Know, Master Jacques, you and people like you, that a table overloaded with eatables is a real cut-throat; that to be the true friends of those we invite frugality should reign throughout the repast we give, and that according to the saying of one of the ancients, "We must eat to live, and not live to eat."

Har. Ah! how well said that is! Come near, let me embrace you for this last saying. It is the finest sentence I have ever heard in my life: "We must live to eat, and not eat to live." No; that isn't it. How do you say it?

Val. That we must eat to live and not live to eat.

Har. (to Jacques). Yes. Do you hear that? (*To Valère.*) Who is the great man who said that?

Val. I do not exactly recollect his name just now.

Har. Remember to write down those words for me. I will have them engraved in letters of gold over the mantelpiece of my dining room.

Val. I will not fail. As for your supper, leave it in my hands. I'll manage it as it should be.

Har. Do, then.

Jac. So much the better; all the less work for me.

Har. (to Valère). We must have some of those things of which it is not possible to eat much and that satisfy directly. Some good fat beans and a *paté* well stuffed with chestnuts.

Val. Depend upon me.

Har. Now, Master Jacques, you must clean my carriage and have my horses ready to drive to the fair.

Jac. Your horses! Upon my word, sir, they are not at all in a condition to stir. I won't tell you that they are helpless on their bedding for the poor things have none. But you make them keep such rigid fasts that they are nothing but phantoms, ideas, and mere shadows of horses.

Har. They are much to be pitied. They have nothing to do.

Jac. And because they have nothing to do must they have nothing to eat? It would be much better for them, poor things, to work much and eat to correspond. It breaks my heart to see them so reduced; for in short I love my horses, and when I see them suffer it seems as if it were myself. Every day I take the bread out of my own mouth to feed them; and it is being too hard-hearted, sir, to have no compassion upon one's neighbor.

Master Jacques is not only moved by the sufferings of his horses but also by the thought of the impression which Harpagon, whom he loves, has made upon the public.

Jac. (to Harpagon). I will tell you frankly that you are the laughing-stock of everybody; that they taunt us everywhere by a thousand jokes on your account, and that nothing delights people more than to make sport of you, and to tell stories without end about your stinginess. One says that you

have almanacs printed, where you double the ember days and vigils so that you may profit by the fasts which you force upon all your house; another, that you always have a ready-made quarrel for your servants at Christmas-time or when they leave you, so that you may give them nothing. One tells a story how, not long since, you prosecuted a neighbor's cat because it had eaten up the remainder of a leg of mutton; another says that one night you were caught stealing your horses' oats, and that your coachman—that is, the man who was before me—gave you, in the dark, a good, sound drubbing, of which you said nothing. In short, what is the use of going on? We can go nowhere but we are sure to hear you pulled to pieces. You are the butt and jest and byword of everybody; and never does any one mention you but under the names of miser, stingy, mean, niggardly fellow, and usurer.

The preceding extracts illustrate Molière's method in throwing his search-light upon his characters and his artistic power in exhibiting them. It must be remembered that the texts which we read do not convey a full idea of the great French comedian's masterpieces. They are to the full dramatic creation what notation is to music, and in order to display their full excellence they must be rendered by such artists as Molière himself and Coquelin. With such an interpretation "*L'Avare*" will easily hold one of the highest places among the best comedies of the world for its artistic power, its intense interest, and above all for its moral qualities.

SUNDAY READINGS.

SELECTED BY BISHOP VINCENT.

CHRISTIANITY VINDICATED BY ITS ENEMIES.

I. The transcendent excellence of Christianity as a religious system.

[November 1.]

AS to the literary excellence of the Bible one unwitting acknowledgment shall suffice. When in Paris, Hon. Daniel Webster heard an account of a French infidel who happened to find in a drawer of his library some stray leaves of a volume unknown to him. Like most infidels he had a habit of denouncing the Bible, though he never read it. These fugitive

leaves contained the prayer of Habakkuk (chap. iii.). Being a man of fine literary tastes he was captivated with its poetic beauty, and hastened to the club house to announce the discovery to his associates. Of course they were anxious to know the name of the gifted author, to which inquiries the elated infidel replied, "A writer by the name of Hab-ba-cook, of course a Frenchman." Great was his surprise when informed that the passage was penned by one of God's Jewish prophets. "This I regard," said Webster, "as one of the

sublimest passages of inspired literature."

But at this point we have to do with the moral and religious excellence of Christianity.

In their better moods skeptics of the earlier and the later times have made extraordinary declarations in regard to the elevated character of our holy religion.

Bolingbroke, a distinguished English deist, said: "No religion ever appeared in the world whose natural tendency was so much directed to promote the peace and happiness of mankind as Christianity. No system can be more simple and plain than that of natural religion as it stands in the gospels. The system of religion which Christ published and his evangelists recorded is a complete system for all the purposes of religion, natural and revealed. Christianity as it stands in the gospels is not only a complete but a very plain system of religion. The Gospel is in all cases one continued lesson of the strictest morality, justice, benevolence, and universal charity."

Thomas Paine said: "Jesus Christ was a virtuous and an amiable man. The morality which he preached and practiced was of the most benevolent kind. Though many similar systems of morality had been preached by Confucius and by some of the Greek philosophers many years before, and by many good men in all ages, it has not been exceeded by any."

Mr. John Stuart Mill, one of the most radical doubters of our times, says:

"I grant that some of the precepts of Christ as exhibited in the gospels—rising far above the Paulism which is the foundation of ordinary Christianity—carry some kinds of moral goodness to a greater height than had ever been attained before, though much even of what is supposed to be peculiar to them is equaled in the 'Meditations of Marcus Antoninus,' which we have no ground for believing to have been in any way indebted to Christianity.

"The 'new commandment to love one another'; the recognition that the greatest are those who serve, not those who are served by others; the reverence for the weak and

humble, which is the foundation of chivalry, they, and not the strong, being pointed out as having the first place in God's regard and the first claim on their fellow-men; the lesson of the parable of the good Samaritan; that of 'He that is without sin, let him first cast a stone'; the precept of doing as we would be done by, and such other noble moralities as are to be found, mixed with some poetical exaggerations and some maxims of which it is difficult to ascertain the precise object, in the authentic sayings of Jesus of Nazareth—these are surely in sufficient harmony with the intellect and feelings of every good man or woman to be in no danger of being let go after having been once acknowledged as the creed of the best and foremost portions of our species."

[November 8.]

ROUSSEAU said: "If all were perfect Christians individuals would do their duty; the people would be obedient to the laws, the magistrates incorruptible, and there would be neither vanity nor luxury in such a state."

Goethe's extreme skeptical attitude is well known. But he had times in which he devoted considerable attention to the Bible. One day his freethinking friends reproached him for wasting his time over the Bible. He replied, "I am convinced the Bible becomes more beautiful the more I understand it."

Again he said: "No criticism will be able to perplex the confidence which we have entertained of a writing whose contents have stirred up and given life to our vital energy by its own."

Mrs. Ednah D. Cheney, before the Radical Club, in Boston, April, 1870, said: "Jesus of Nazareth had ideas and beliefs which have developed into a church worshipping his name. I find in them a richness of meaning and an affluence of power which I have not yet exhausted, and which I do not think have yet had their full representation or done their full work in the world. As I know of no intellectual theme on which Plato has not something to say to me, so on every moral and spiritual question,

it seems to me, the New Testament has something higher for me than I find from any other human source."

Even Renan had his children brought up under the training of Protestant teachers, because, as he said, he felt that they must be reared under the discipline of some religion, and he preferred that which has always been in favor of liberty.

Hon. Thomas Jefferson, during a considerable part of his life an avowed unbeliever, speaking of the Bible, said: "I have always said, and always will say, that the studious perusal of the sacred volume will make better citizens, better fathers, and better husbands."

A member of the French Academy visiting Diderot, one of the leading French infidels, found him explaining a chapter of the New Testament to his daughter. His visitor expressing surprise, Diderot replied, "What better lesson could I give her?"

Lord Chesterfield, the most polite and well-bred man of his times, and also one of the greatest wits, imbibed deeply the current skepticism of his age, though he was never a zealous promoter of infidelity. Being one day at Brussels he was waited upon by Voltaire, who invited him to sup with him and Madame C——. His lordship accepted the invitation. The conversation happening to turn upon the affairs of England, the lady remarked, "I think, my lord, that the Parliament of England consists of several hundred of the best improved and most sensible men in the kingdom." Chesterfield replied, "True, madam; they are generally supposed to be so." "What, then," said she, "can be the reason that they tolerate so great an absurdity as the Christian religion?" "I suppose, madam," replied his lordship, "it is because they have not been able to substitute anything better in its stead; when they can I do not doubt but in wisdom they will readily accept it."

[*November 15.*]

THE carping world is continually making tacit acknowledgments of the superior excellence of Christianity. It does it in its

taunts of the inconsistencies of Christians. A young infidel was once scoffing at Christianity in the presence of Rev. Dr. John M. Mason, on account of the misconduct of some of its professors. Dr. Mason calmly turned to him and asked, "Did you ever know an uproar made because an infidel went astray from the paths of morality?" The infidel admitted he had not. "Then," said Dr. Mason, "you admit Christianity is a holy religion by expecting its professors to be holy; and thus, by your very scoffing, you pay it the highest compliment in your power."

Such are the remarkable acknowledgments:

Bolingbroke—That Christianity is "a complete system for all the purposes of religion, natural and revealed—one continued lesson of the strictest morality, justice, benevolence, and universal charity."

Thomas Paine—That "the morality which Christ preached was of the most benevolent kind; it has not been exceeded by any."

John Stuart Mill—That "some of the precepts of Christ . . . carry some kinds of moral goodness to a greater height than had ever been attained before."

Rousseau—That "if all were perfect Christians . . . there would be neither vanity nor luxury in such a state."

Ednah D. Cheney—That "on every moral and spiritual question the New Testament has something higher for me than I find from any other human source."

Diderot and Huxley—That they could "find no better lessons to teach their children than those of the Bible."

Lord Chesterfield—That it is impossible to find anything better than the Christian religion to substitute in its place.

The Christian religion, then, is not only a temple of magnificent proportions, but also of transcendently glorious character; the best religion by far, even by the confessions of its enemies, the world ever saw, with precepts, examples, and morals the purest and highest ever promulgated, and for which no substitute can be found.

After all, if Christianity is only like a beautiful ideal temple, or a mere system of

refined ethics and elevated sentiment, but destitute of operating force, with no practical efficiency to transform and elevate, it is of little available value in such a world as this.

It is, then, a pertinent question, not to be overlooked—Has Christianity any power to change and mold the world and make it better? Have any influences emanated from this goodly system which have transformed, regenerated, gladdened, and elevated men? What have been the actual effects upon society? What have our enemies to say about it?

[November 22.]

LET us, then, next notice admissions touching

II. Christianity as a reforming and uplifting force in the world.

Gibbon, the distinguished Roman historian and one of the most radical skeptics of his time, was, withal, sometimes quite candid in his treatment of Christianity, making remarkable acknowledgments. He said: "The primitive Christian demonstrated his faith by his virtues. . . . It is a very ancient reproach, suggested by the ignorance or the malice of infidelity, that the [early] Christians allured to their party the most atrocious criminals, who, as soon as they were touched by a sense of remorse, were easily persuaded to wash away in the waters of baptism the guilt of their past conduct, for which the temples of the gods refused them any expiation. But this reproach, when it is cleared from misrepresentation, contributes as much to the honor as it did to the increase of the church. The friends of Christianity may acknowledge without a blush that many of the most eminent saints had been, before their baptism, the most abandoned sinners."

Mr. Lecky, a radical rationalist, treats Christianity with rare candor. In his "History of European Morals" he says: "It has been reserved for Christianity to present the world an ideal character which through all the changes of eighteen centuries has filled the hearts of men with an impassioned love; has shown itself capable

of acting in all ages, nations, temperaments, and conditions; has not only been the highest pattern of virtue but the highest incentive to its practice, and has exercised so deep an influence that it may be truly said that the simple record of three short years of Christ's active life has done more to regenerate and soften mankind than all the disquisitions of philosophers and all the exhortations of moralists. It has been the well-spring of whatever is best and purest in the Christian life. Amid all the sins and failings; amid all the priestcraft and persecution and fanaticism that have defaced the church, it has preserved in the character and example of its Founder an enduring principle of regeneration."

Mr. Lecky also said: "The history of self-sacrifice during the last eighteen hundred years has been mainly the history of the action of Christianity upon the world; the moral type and beauty, the enlarged conceptions and persuasive power of the Christian faith have chiefly called it [self-sacrifice] into being, and it is by their influence alone that it can be permanently sustained. The power of Christianity, in this respect, can only cease with the annihilation of the moral nature of mankind."

Speaking of the Christian faith, Rousseau said: "A purer faith has given a greater gentleness to Christian manners. This improvement is not the work of literature; for wherever literature has previously flourished humanity has not been the more respected by its means; the cruelties of the Athenians, the Egyptians, the Roman emperors, and the Chinese are examples of this truth."

One day Voltaire entertained at his house in Fernay some of the most learned unbelievers of the last century. Conversation turning upon the Christian religion, Voltaire's guests indulged in all sorts of infidel taunts against our holy faith, and said all they could to bring it into discredit. To the great surprise of his friends, Voltaire sent away all his servants who had been waiting at the table, and locked the door to prevent their coming in again. "If these servants are obedient and honest," he said,

"it is entirely the result of their religious prejudices. One must respect these prejudices if we do not wish to change a set of lambs into fierce wild beasts." This was a high compliment to Christianity by a man who did more than any other in his day to overthrow it.

[November 29.]

MORE than once does Renan give testimony against himself, in the light of which his interpretation of the life of Jesus is clearly insufficient and ridiculous. He concedes that "the greatest era in human history dates from Jesus." He asks, "Who laid the foundations of a new social order? Who opened to drooping humanity a career of immense progress?" He confesses it was Christ. "All history," he says, "is incomprehensible without Christ."

Two men, one of whom was an infidel, accustomed to freely denounce Christianity as a humbug and its professors as hypocrites, were traveling on a western frontier. Spending the night in an uninviting cabin, far from the borders of civilization, they agreed to share the night in watching, with their pistols in readiness for defense. Before retiring to rest their host took down his well-worn Bible, read, and fervently prayed, kindly remembering the strangers. Retiring to their room, the skeptic, to whom had been assigned the first watch, instead of preparing his pistols prepared for sleep. When reminded by his companion of their agreement the infidel confessed that he could but feel safe where the Bible was read and such prayers offered as they had just listened to.

Mr. James A. Froude says: "All that we call modern civilization in a sense which deserves the name is the visible expression of the transforming power of the Gospel."

Lecky says: "As a matter of fact Christianity has done more to quicken the affections of mankind, to promote piety, to create a pure and merciful idea, than any other influence that has ever acted upon the world."

Carlyle has well said: "The Christian religion must be regarded as the coming

glory, or rather the life and soul, of our whole modern culture."

Charles R. Darwin protested against the depreciation of the work of missionaries by infidel tourists:

"The slanderers forget—or rather they will not consider—that human sacrifice, the power of an idolatrous priesthood, a systematically refined sensuality which has no parallel in the world—child murder—that all this is put away and abolished, and that dishonesty and intemperance and impurity have been to a great extent lessened through the introduction of Christianity. It is the basest ingratitude on the part of writers of travels to forget this. Were it their lot to stand in expectation of suffering shipwreck on some unknown coast they would direct a fervent prayer to heaven that the teachings of the missionaries might have reached its inhabitants."

What remarkable acknowledgments we here have!—of Gibbon, that the "Christian demonstrated his faith by his virtues, that the friends of Christianity may acknowledge without a blush that many of the most eminent saints had been before their baptism the most abandoned sinners;" of Voltaire, that the obedience and honesty of his servants was due to their religion; and of Lecky that Christianity through all the centuries has shown itself capable of acting in all nations and temperaments and conditions—has not only been the highest pattern of virtue, but the greatest incentive to its practice—and that it has done more to improve mankind than all that philosophers and moralists have done.

We see, then, that Christianity is something more than a beautiful temple, more than a lofty ethical and religious ideal, more than a refined sentiment; that out of Christianity flow living influences; that it is an actual operative force; that it is eminently productive of the best welfare of society; that it has checked the evil tides of the world; that it has exerted a more powerful, purifying, and uplifting influence than any and all other religions that ever appeared upon earth.—*Daniel Dorchester, D.D.*

(End of Required Reading for November.)

FLAVIA.

BY ANDRÉ THEURIET.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE FRENCH "REVUE DES DEUX MONDES."

VI.

ON awaking the next day I felt a weight on my heart, and instinctively seeking for the cause of that anguish I recalled to myself the disaster of the evening before. Then I was mortified to notice that my tears had dried very quickly, and I was angry with myself for having slept so soundly in spite of my sorrow. In the novels I had read the betrayed lovers lost their sleep more easily than that, and underwent more cruel tortures. Ashamed of my small capacity for suffering I wished to show my grief by standing out against my stomach, at the very least, so having dressed myself I went out of the house without my breakfast. I did not risk myself in the street. It seemed to me that all the people in the village must know already that I had been supplanted by Paul Saint-Vanne, and I didn't wish to offer to them the sight of my hang-dog countenance. I went through the fields to the edge of the Chânois wood in order to be able to meditate on my sad thoughts at my ease under the beeches.

From the top of the hill, through a veil of mist as fine as gauze, I could see the village spreading up over the slope opposite. The breeze brought to me the piston strokes from Numa Brocard's factory. Although the forest seemed to me better suited to meditation I had not the courage to bury myself in the woods and thus tear myself away from the contemplation of the dwelling where my faithless one was then awakening. I could see in the distance, halfway down the hill, the Sonilly road winding white between the grain fields which were already harvested, and the image of the triumphant Paul Saint-Vanne rose before my eyes to heighten my jealousy.

What line of conduct was I to maintain

now in regard to Flavia? My dignity ordered me never to see her again, but my heart revolted at the idea of such a renunciation. However black her treachery might be, I loved Mlle. Brocard altogether too tenderly, and this sacrifice was beyond my strength. I understood only too well that it was I and not she whom I should punish in ceasing to see her. Besides she had confessed nothing to me, and she owed me an explanation. While debating the pros and cons I had seated myself in the shade of a thick hedge composed of briers, hawthorn, and viburnum, a hedge we call the *vinée* in that country. Behind me in a hackberry tree I heard the twittering of a redbreast. The timid song of that bird brought to my mind the projects for picnics in the woods and snaring birds we had formed for that September vacation. My heart sank, and the refrain of the old round we used to dance with the village children came to my lips:

We shall go no more to the woods, the laurels
have been cut!

Now everything would be for that detested Saint-Vanne. He was stealing my share of tenderness from me, he was getting hold of everything in the house!

Irresolute and heartsick, my feet in the dew, my head hanging, feeling now and then inward twitchings which disagreeably reminded me of my voluntary fast, I remained there for some time. I heard nine o'clock striking from the church tower. The shrill tones of the old clock came clearly to me through a limpid atmosphere. The sun, already high, was beginning to warm me, and its mild caress falling on my back gave me new courage. I thought that Flavia must be expecting me, since I had promised to visit her the evening before. By failing to keep my word I would put myself in the wrong, I would

foolishly deprive myself of that occasion, which might be my only one, of pleading my own case and gaining it. I jumped up with a leap, tried my legs that had become stiff, and hurrying down the slope I stole into Numa Brocard's house. The moment was favorable for having an explanation. The servant told me that Numa had just gone to the factory, and that Madame Lucia had started for Verdun to try on a dress.

Very much agitated but very dignified, I then went up to Flavia's room and knocked at the door; but without waiting for an answer I entered with a rush.

"Who's there?" asked Mlle. Brocard, who was turned toward her mirror and was busy-ing herself with tying a blue ribbon under her broad collar.

"I," I answered in an already wavering voice.

"What! it's you, James? Do you surprise people in that way? I didn't hear you knock."

"Because your thoughts were evidently somewhere else!" I answered ironically.

She had finished tying her ribbon. She turned around, saw my careworn face, and began to laugh.

"Ha! ha! what's going on? You look like an angry little rooster!"

I didn't know what I looked like, but what I was entirely certain about was that she was as attractive as possible with her blue ribbon, her pink cheeks, and her laughing eyes. I was becoming more and more embarrassed, and my haughty assurance was diminishing in proportion.

"Flavia," I began with a choking voice, "I have come to ask an explanation from you."

"An explanation?" she broke in, in surprise. "That's a very big word! Well, go ahead, I'm listening."

"Flavia, some things have happened here since Easter vacation which hurt me very much. People say that you are going to marry M. Saint-Vanne. Is that true?"

She blushed, looked at me curiously through her drooping lashes, then sitting down at her worktable and taking her cro-

chet work she asked with a rather merry smile in the corner of her lips:

"Who are 'people'? Where did you pick up that village tattle?"

"I haven't talked with anybody in the village, Flavia. What I saw yesterday at your house was plain enough. And the proof is that when I spoke of it to papa he immediately said, 'There's a marriage back of that.'"

"Ah! your father said that," she repeated with a visible satisfaction.

She reflected a moment, fastened her crochet work to its skein of wool, pointed out to me a stool at her feet, and said:

"Sit down there, and if you promise me you will be very good I will confide to you a secret."

I obeyed. She bent over toward me, and while absent-mindedly smoothing the tie of my cravat she said to me in a low tone:

"You are a good friend, and you are sensible enough to be openly spoken to. Well!—your father guessed right. A marriage between me and M. Saint-Vanne is under discussion."

I grew pale. The blow that this almost brutal confession gave me, and doubtless also the emptiness that my morning's fast had created in my stomach, made me faint. I felt my head swim, and I was on the point of feeling ill. Flavia noticed my pale lips and white eyes and asked in a fright:

"What's the matter with you, my dear boy? Are you sick?"

A famished stomach knows no shame. I was undergoing such sensations of inner hollowness that I hadn't the courage to hide the truth from her. I confessed that my grief had prevented me from breakfasting and that I was dying of hunger.

"Ah! my poor boy," she said with tender compassion. At the same time she lifted me from my stool and set me on the chair she had just left.

"Wait a minute!" she added, and rushed out of the room.

In a little while she came back with a bowl of hot soup, right from the kettle, and a piece of *boute-à-bras*, the name that is

given around Verdun to the bun that is made crown-shaped.

"Come," she said to me, "drink this soup first, it will warm you up. Then you can eat some *boute-à-bras*."

She wasn't obliged to repeat her invitation. I swallowed the soup and devoured the bun.

Flavia looked at me gulping down the food with a smile which had in it at the same time friendship and a spice of mockery.

"How did you deprive yourself of breakfast?" she asked. "Isn't it sensible to make one's self sick for the fun of it?"

Her pity irritated me. I was humiliated at my prosaic fainting fit and at the same time indignant at the calmness with which she told me about her future marriage. But how can you get angry with any one who has just buoyed you up with a savory soup and a bun? Therefore when she began with, "Do you feel better now?" I merely nodded my head and stammered out my gratitude.

Flavia had kneeled down beside me in the most kindly way and was looking smilingly at me, all ready to take up again the thread of her confidence, without suspecting how terribly my heart was torn by her cruel and imperturbable serenity.

"So you are going to get married?" I said in a reproachful tone.

"There's talk of it, but you are the first I've spoken to about it, and I count on your discretion. M. Saint-Vanne is to come and make his proposal with his father and invite us to dinner Sunday week. On that day the *entrée* will take place."

Among us the *entrée* is one of the most decisive acts of the betrothal ceremonial. It is the introduction of the girl to the family and friends of her future husband. The parents of the suitor give a great dinner then, and the wedding day is fixed upon.

"Then you love that man?" I disdainfully cried out.

"Yes," she admitted, "I like him very much."

"Well! what about me?"

"You, my James—I love you as I would a good little brother, and when I am mar-

ried there will be no change in our friendship. You will be petted in our house like one of the family."

"No, it won't be the same thing any more," I answered in despair. "I beg of you, Flavia, don't marry M. Saint-Vanne."

"What a child!" she sighed, laughing and patting my cheek. "Come, I can't surely become an old maid!"

"You will not be an old maid, Flavia!" And then I threw my arms around her neck, I put my head down on her shoulder, and I murmured in her ear: "Only wait for me. In four years I shall be out of school. I shall be a grown man. I shall get my law degree and marry you afterward. If you love me can't you wait patiently for a few years? We are so well off as we are now!"

She kissed me, then made me sit down again on the chair. Her face had become thoughtful, slightly sad even.

"Alas! no," she answered. "I haven't time to wait, my poor boy! And I am going to tell you why. That is the greatest sign of affection that I can give you. You see, dear James, we are not so rich as people think. The household expenses are large. Mamma doesn't know how to manage, and papa has recently lost money in bad speculations. He won't admit it, because he is very proud, but I guess it from his anxious look and the coming and going of agents, who show their faces at the factory altogether too often. It is probable, therefore, that I shall not have a large dowry, and if I meet a well-bred fellow who pleases me and consents to marry me in spite of my small fortune I would be crazy to refuse him. For my own interest as well as for my parents' I must marry as soon as possible. Now you understand the situation, don't you, James? and you see I haven't time to wait. But don't breathe a word of this to any one."

I hung my head, overwhelmed by this reasoning. Ah! how I would have liked to be rich and place all my treasures at her feet, to keep her from preferring that Saint-Vanne to me! At my age—the age I was then—money matters are held to be wretched

considerations, and disinterestedness is easy. A dull sadness took gradual possession of me, but I no longer felt within myself that anger or that bitterness which were poisoning my heart when I entered Flavia's room. On the contrary I experienced a sentiment of heroic resignation, mingled with an increase of tenderness. Once more I threw myself on Flavia's neck, with my head on her shoulder, and I cried out, my eyes filled with tears :

"I love you, Flavia! Whatever may happen I will always love you more than everything else in the world!"

Thereupon I left her and ran to shut myself up in Chèvre-Chêne. The next day I could not keep myself from going to her house again. The walls of the factory attracted me like magnets. But I no longer found her alone, either that day or the afternoons that followed. M. Paul Saint-Vanne was always with us. I felt I bothered him, but I experienced a malicious pleasure in playing the part of a bore and thrusting my presence on him. He was very lordly with me, pretended to treat me like a small boy, joked me about my somewhat negligent school-boy's toilet, about my short sleeves and my unblackened shoes. And truly I did make a sad appearance, with my threadbare frock, by the side of that fine fellow with his light trowsers, fresh cravats fine glossy shoes, showing pearl-gray silk stockings.

He went about it so effectually that he made the place untenable for me. I took refuge anew in Chèvre-Chêne, and shut myself up there in a gloomy state of mind. My self-esteem, to be sure, was no longer humiliated by Paul Saint-Vanne's disdain and sarcasm, but I endured other torments that were just as cruel. My imagination would picture to me my rival entering the Numa Brocards' parlor, eyeglass at eye, bouquet in hand. I could see him pouring his insipid wooings into Flavia's ears, and my jealousy was goaded by it. My only consolation was to unearth in Chèvre-Chêne library, which had been relegated to the attic, some novel or other in which abandoned lovers gave vent to their sighs. I steeped

myself in that sentimental kind of literature, I put myself in the place of those victims of love, I took them seriously and assuaged my grief by having compassion on their imaginary misfortunes.

On the Sunday on which Flavia's *entrée* at the Saint-Vannes' house was to take place I wished to give myself the bitter joy of contemplating my love in her betrothal finery. I knew that the entire family would start for Sonilly in their carriage at the hour for vespers, and with an air which was falsely indifferent I went out to prowl about the factory. I could hear in the yard the stamping of the horse that was already hitched to the wagon. On the steps Madame Lucia Brocard, adorned with a heliotrope-colored dress was trying on her gloves. Shortly afterward Numa Brocard and Flavia appeared. The latter wore a new dress, a pretty light gray silk, and a cape like it. Under a straw hat blooming with moss roses her shining eyes lit up her pretty face with a prudent gladness. Numa Brocard was the only one who was not in harmony. He seemed careworn to me. Instead of standing up straight as he usually did his back was bent, and his mouth was anxiously puckered. The ladies seated themselves in the wagon. Numa got up on the box, touched the horse's back with the whip, and the wagon went swiftly out of the yard. Flavia caught sight of me as she went by and nodded to me in a friendly way, but I constrained myself to bow reservedly. Her exuberant joy made me altogether too wretched.

A desire seized me to see the wagon climb the hill in the Sonilly road. I crossed back over the stream and going up Chânois hill looked for an edge of the woods where my glance could best take in all the turns of the highway.

As I was drawing near the *vinée* my ears became aware of a singular kind of music. Now it was like the vocalizings of the thrush, now the warbling of a lark. The shrill and tender notes came from a mass of verdure formed by wild clematis entwining itself with the red tufts of the viburnums. It was only when I had my nose in the center

of the thicket, so to speak, that I discovered in a niche made in the tangled branches the mysterious author of that music of the dawn.

Squat down, his knees bent, a leaf of ivy between his lips, Tintin Brocard was whistling to attract the birds toward the twigs covered with birdlime which he had placed here and there among the blackthorns and dogwood trees.

He caught sight of me and stopped his song.

"Blunderer!" he whispered, "you are going to frighten the birds off. Run away quickly or, if this amuses you, hide yourself in this thicket."

I was as vexed as he was, for I was scarcely in the humor to amuse myself, and for that quarter of an hour I would have preferred to find myself alone on that skirt of the forest which served me as an observatory. Nevertheless I yielded to his request so as not to arouse his curiosity, and slipped into the niche near him.

"All the same" said I, "if it had been the game-warden instead of me you would have been caught."

"Not at all!" he answered. "Papa has rented the hunting privileges and has contracted for thinning out the Chânois forest. I am all right, then, and I don't care a snap for the wardens!"

Above the niche where we were hidden the tangled clematis and briars left a loop-hole of green on a level with our two heads, and through this window we could see the Sonilly road winding along halfway down the slope between the fields of yellow stubble shining in the sunlight. Exactly at the moment I sat down Numa Brocard's wagon appeared in our field of vision. It slowly climbed the ascent of the road. You could distinguish perfectly the silhouettes of Madame Brocard and Flavia under their light parasols. Tintin, who possessed good eyes, had quickly recognized his uncle's turn-out. Between his ruddy eyelashes he cast a mocking glance at me and mumbled: "Hello, there's your sweetheart and her mother going to the Saint-Vannes' to supper! To-day is the *entrée* and they are getting ready to

move! Flavia is going to be a madame then and you will be the best man. Who knows? Jim, if I were in your place I wouldn't be in a hurry about ordering my wedding suit. Papa gives us to understand that a great deal of water will run into the sea before the ceremony takes place, and when you start your hare it doesn't signify that you are sure of eating rabbit stew. My faith! if this marriage should miss fire I would shed no tears over it. I can't endure that prude of a Flavia, I can't!"

At the same time his freckled face was lighted up with a malicious light. And—shall I confess it to you?—I myself, at the thought of a possible rupture, felt in the very bottom of my heart a satisfaction which was hardly charitable, but none the less real.

"Hush now!" Tintin continued in a low tone. "Don't stir!"

And he began to whistle again with his ivy leaf between his teeth.

VII.

TINTIN'S insinuations regarding Flavia's marriage filled my thoughts the rest of that day. Why did Nicholas Brocard doubt whether the marriage ceremony would take place at the time fixed upon? The two families had come to an agreement, the proposal had been made, and the banns were about to be published. Was Nicholas' remark merely prompted by a jealous grudge, or did it have a more serious foundation? I put this unfavorable augury side by side with Flavia's confidential statements about the bad state of the younger Brocard's business affairs, and I asked myself whether the elder brother was not already informed about the financial embarrassments which were bothering Numa. While detesting Paul Saint-Vanne and cordially hoping that he would not marry Mlle. Brocard I could not keep from thinking about my friend's mortification if Tintin's wicked predictions should come to pass. I was cruelly divided between my affection for Flavia and the hatred that my rival inspired me with.

However, they continued to busy them-

selves with preparations for the wedding. The first papers had been posted up, and Numa had come to invite us to attend the signing of the contract, which was to occur in a week. In his capacity as a friend of his youth my father had promised Numa to be one of the witnesses for the bride, and both of us were invited to the family breakfast, which would follow the ceremony of signing. Ever since Flavia had initiated me into the pecuniary troubles of the younger Brocard my heart had inclined toward indulgence, and I had formed the project of giving my friend a material pledge of my heroic abnegation and my persistent tenderness at the same time. I had five or six francs which I had saved out of my weekly allowance. Three days before the contract I got up early and started for Benoit-Vaux. At that place were some shops of small wares in the line of jewelry kept to be sold to the pilgrims that came there. I entered the one which kept the largest stock and bought a little silver ring which seemed to me a very presentable betrothal gift. Very proud of my purchase I returned along the edge of Chânois forest, thinking of how I should give Flavia the ring.

In dawdling along I came to that *vinée* thicket where I had disturbed Tintin in his bird hunt. It was beautiful autumn weather, clear and cheerful. The woods gave out an odor of mushrooms, and along their borders the dogwood was taking on reddish tints. I could see before me the Sonilly road, all white, zigzagging along the side of the hill through the violet lucern and the reddish brown ploughed lands. The meadows of the Fosse-des-Dames were rolling out their fresh green below, sparkling here and there with the blue water of a hemp pool. Farther on rows of poplars, looking as though they were on the march toward the wooded slopes, outlined the supple silhouettes of their golden-yellow branches. The village was smoking in the sunlight. I could distinguish the great square house of the elder Brocard with its slate roofs, over which a flock of pigeons were wheeling, then opposite on the other

side of the brook the younger Brocard's factory with its red tiled roof, its thin, long funnel from which a jet of whistling steam would escape at regular intervals. And the sight of these two neighboring and hostile dwellings renewed in my mind the restless curiosity which Tintin's mysterious insinuations had caused me.

While I was looking, absorbed in my reflections, at the gleaming panes of Flavia's window, I suddenly saw the head and then the stout form of Nicholas Brocard appear over the steep ascent. A straw hat on, his gun and game bag slung crosswise over his blue blouse, he was heading toward the Chânois clearings, and as the foot-path went along the *vinée* he was bound to pass near me. I knew that he was rather cool toward me since I had taken his brother's side, and I had no desire at all to speak to him. So I slipped quietly into the niche Tintin had made in the thicket and kept still until he should enter the coppice. A minute later and the shadow of his large frame came between my hiding-place and the fields lying in the sunlight. He went on, whistling. Next I heard him enter the woods. I was about to come out of my place of refuge, when a fresh noise made me scurry back to my watch-tower. Fancy my surprise when I recognized in the promenader, who was coming in front of the hole where I lay, Numa Brocard in person. You would have said that he knew his brother had preceded him, and that he was intending to join him, for with a hurried step, without any hesitation, he immediately entered the cut that Nicholas Brocard had taken the instant before.

What was going to happen between the two brothers? Was their meeting voluntary or, as was more probable, had the younger Brocard guessed that Nicholas was going to his clearing and resolved to follow him to it in order to have an easier explanation with him in that solitary corner of the forest? At all events I sniffed a mystery there which sharpened my curiosity. Whether that interview was premeditated or not I had an idea that it would be about Flavia, and although the trade of eaves-

dropper seemed to me a very low one my violent desire to overhear the conversation between these two brothers, who had been on bad terms for more than a year, carried the day against my aversion to it. With the prudent precautions of a hare leaving his burrow I forsook my hiding-place and circling the *vinée* clambered up to a wood-road that crossed the cut perpendicularly and by which I could reach the clearing before the younger Brocard got there.

That piece of woods, cut the previous spring, occupied the two sides of a narrow valley into which the cut led. This valley lay beneath the road I had taken. After some hundred paces I caught sight of the clearing where the reserve trees, the only ones remaining, stood out here and there in the full glare of light, surrounded by piles of sticks and rows of cord-wood. The September sun was glowing on the bare ground, drowning in its rays the leafy summits of the cut tree tops and the lilac-colored tufts of great thistles which were blooming luxuriantly in the neighborhood of the tiers. Through the bare portion of the coppice I could clearly see Nicholas Brocard. He had seated himself on some brushwood not far from the brook which was gurgling among the masterworts and meadowsweets. His back against a beech stump, he was lighting a pipe, and light puffs of smoke were making a halo about his head. Exactly at the place I had reached a double tier of cord-wood stretched out in parallel lines along the incline of the slope, stopping some feet from the brushwood which served as a seat for the smoker.

I stole into this corridor, carpeted with moss which deadened the sound of my footsteps. Hidden by the cord-wood, which formed a rampart a yard high, I could glide along crouchingly down to the banks of the stream. There I stretched myself out face down in the grass, my head supported by my hands, in a position which was excellent to hear everything at least, if not to see everything. I was already well settled when the younger Brocard came out of the cut in his turn and went toward his brother. At the noise of his steps on the

pebbly soil Nicholas had evidently raised his head and recognized his junior, for he uttered a low grunt of surprise.

"How do you do, Brocard!" murmured Numa in a hesitating tone.

"How do you do!"

"You are well?"

"Just as you see me."

Nicholas' short and grouty answers were not over encouraging. Nevertheless Numa did not seem to be rebuffed, for he began again after a short silence:

"I caught sight of you near the *vinée*, and as I wished to talk quietly with you I came to meet you in the clearing. It doesn't bother you?"

"No, not for the moment. What have you to say to me?"

"Brother Nicholas, Flavia is going to get married."

"I have heard that spoken of in the village. What of it?"

"Flavia is your goddaughter, and I desired to announce her marriage to you myself."

"You have taken your time about it!" the elder Brocard said sarcastically. "Being her godfather I might have been informed of the event other than by common report. Formerly this way of acting would have hurt my feelings, but now I am accustomed to your lack of consideration. Besides, your affairs do not concern me. You and your wife have made me feel that sufficiently, and I was paid not to mix in them any more."

"It is possible that we have wronged you. But between two brothers who loved each other as we did, rancor, Nicholas, cannot last, do you think? When we were urchins our squabbles, you remember, did not continue long, and we promised each other never to let the sun go down on our wrath. This is why I resolved to explain myself to you, face to face, as in the olden time."

Calling up these memories of childhood had doubtless made Nicholas Brocard better disposed. He coughed and said in a milder tone:

"If you had gone about it in this way as

soon as we first disagreed it would have been indeed better. Formerly there were no women to stand between us, and our quarrels ended in a kiss."

"That was the good old time! Even here—do you remember?—we were coming back from the pond and we had gotten into a dispute about a snipe which I had made you miss. A pouting fit had separated us, and we were going home each in his own direction. But when we found ourselves face to face in the cut we could not keep from laughing, and a grasp of the hand restored us again to our fraternal relations."

Another silence. Probably the sight of that piece of woods, all the corners and recesses of which they had known since their earliest years, brought the two brothers to more conciliatory thoughts. The chirping of the grasshoppers and crickets, the gurgling of the brook aroused their sensations of youth. Experience has taught me later in life that people cannot with impunity meet face to face in a place where the least object calls to mind the emotions experienced at an age when everything was more deeply engraved upon the heart. The resurrection of the impressions of our childhood and youth cannot take place without stirring up in the depths of our hearts an unconscious melancholy which makes us more indulgent and more compassionate. By plunging into the remembrances of other days you find, as in the fountain of youth, that sensitiveness again, that freshness of soul, which harsh practical life had sterilized, to use the expression.

Nicholas Brocard was doubtless undergoing that clement influence, for I heard him blow his nose loudly, and then cry out suddenly to his brother:

"Why do you stand there like a stick? There's room for two on my heap of brush. Sit down and tell me what is bothering you without beating around the bush, for you don't appear to be in your usual frame of mind, comrade of mine."

"Well, here it is," answered Numa with a heavy sigh. "We are marrying off Flavia. She is to become M. Paul Saint-Vanne's wife. He's a good match and we couldn't

expect a better one. The agreements have been made, and in three days we are to meet at my house to define the conditions of the contract. I have promised to give Flavia a dowry of fifty thousand francs and we naturally must put that through. But business is bad for the moment and I find myself somewhat embarrassed. I have only some twenty thousand francs in cash, and the Saint-Vannes, as is right, will ask us to show the rest, either in money or securities. I am then rather at a loss——"

"What!" cried Nicholas with an astonishment that did not seem very sincere. "When we settled up our partnership I handed over to you sixty thousand francs in railroad stocks and government bonds. What's become of all that?"

"What can you expect?" the younger Brocard sorrowfully answered. "The factory has not yielded all I expected from it. I had heavy expenses fitting it up, and then my housekeeping is rather costly. To meet my notes when due I had to sell my securities. I haven't a single one left."

"Ahem! we call that eating one's corn before it's ripe. Don't you see, my poor brother, that your wife has always wished to cut a great figure, and it's that that is the ruin of you? Well what of it? I told you what I thought about it long ago and I won't repeat. You reap what you have sown and neither you nor I can help it. How are you going to get out of the fix?"

"Well, for the present and to provide for the most pressing need, if I could only show the lawyer money or securities to the amount of fifty thousand francs that would be enough to reassure the Saint-Vannes. In that case I had thought of you who haven't been obliged to get rid of your securities, and I was wishing to ask you to lend me a certain number of them for a few days, say to the amount of some thirty thousand francs. It would be a pure formality, and I would give your securities back to you after the contract had been signed."

"Is that an idea of yours?"

"Well—yes," answered Numa timidly.

"I can't offer you any compliments on it. Do you know that what you propose to me

isn't very honest? To call things by their right names, you wish to deceive the Saint-Vannes and pretend you have property which you don't really own. But, my poor fellow, supposing I help you in your subterfuge, what will you answer your son-in-law when after the marriage he will demand the dowry that you are supposed to assure to your daughter?"

"I will ask of him time to get straightened out. As he is very much in love with Flavia he will be patient."

"And in the meantime," put in Nicholas with a sneer, "the young couple will live on love and cold water! If your future son-in-law is so much in love as that why don't you confess to him the truth pure and simple? He will take your daughter without a dowry just as quickly. What? You shake your head. You don't believe it? Nor I either. At bottom M. Paul Saint-Vanne is counting on that money to buy a lawyer's office with. His father is as crafty as an old monkey. He will want to be as certain as can be and handle the crowns in advance. Then what? What will you do?"

"How can I tell?" Numa sadly answered. "If the marriage is not carried through I am a ruined man. Flavia won't be able to find a husband and my wife will fall sick over it."

"Your wife! Pooh! She will console herself by ordering a new dress," exclaimed the elder Brocard irreverently. "All that is disagreeable, I don't deny. The best thing would be to borrow the thirty thousand francs you lack by giving a mortgage on your factory."

"I have but three days left now. How can you expect me to find a loan in so short a time? You are the only one who could save me by consenting to do the deed you mention. Flavia is your goddaughter. Advance the sum to her!"

"Flavia! Flavia! If I were single, indeed I would not say no, but I am married and have a family. You don't let thirty thousand francs go in a day. Besides, supposing I were in shape to help you, I should be obliged to consult my wife the first thing, and—well, she isn't any too well disposed

toward you. Ah! if you had only treated her better—if Lucia had not said foolish things to her! But in the situation in which things are she will refuse outright, and my hands will be tied. There!"

"Then I have nothing to do but drown myself!" groaned the younger Brocard.

There was such a despairing tone in that poor man's exclamation that it pierced me to the heart. And yet I was hoping that this accursed marriage might not take place! Nevertheless the sad straits to which Numa was reduced grieved me very much. I believe Nicholas Brocard was affected by them as I was, for after having coughed several times he murmured between his teeth:

"Come, don't despair. I am going to try to arrange the matter with my Adelina. But one good counsel to you, my comrade! Try to reason with your wife beforehand and get her to take the first step. Let her go this very day and announce Flavia's marriage at our house, and let her profit by the occasion to make her excuses to Adelina and ask her to forget what has passed. The woman will appreciate her effort, and will then perhaps show herself more accommodating when I speak to her about the loan of thirty thousand francs."

"Lucia will go and call on Madame Brocard this afternoon. Thank you, Nicholas!"

"Look out! Don't thank me yet! I promise you I will do all I can, but I don't guarantee you anything."

"Thank you all the same! I am happy in being at peace with you, old fellow!"

They shook hands and separated. Numa went back through the cut, and Nicholas continued on his way toward the Pontoux farm. As for me, I prudently remained hidden behind the cord-wood for a good quarter of an hour longer. When I was certain that both of them were a long way off I made up my mind to leave my hiding-place, and proceeded to Chèvre-Chêne very much preoccupied with what I had heard.

I was thinking all the time of Flavia, who was calmly attending to her preparations for the ceremony, or perhaps was coquetting with Paul Saint-Vanne, not suspecting that her marriage depended entirely on the

good will of the elder Brocard and his wife. I was feverishly asking myself what was going to come of it all. In the first place would Madame Lucia, *née* Des Encherins, consent to call on her sister-in-law and confess her sins? And supposing she would bend her pride and submit to the humiliation, how would her step be received? Madame Adelina Brocard was very avaricious, people said, and hated very much to loosen the strings to her purse. Nicholas would have a deal of trouble to induce her to render any service to people she detested. And would he himself be steadfast in his good intentions to the very end?

The solution of this dramatic problem

worried me so that I didn't dare to show myself any longer at Flavia's house. I felt myself too much disturbed and incapable of concealing my anxiety. I was afraid of revealing to her in some expansive moment the sad situation of which I had learned the secret. While having compassion on the anguish that must have tortured Numa Brocard during those three days of expectation, I yet would say very softly to myself that if the marriage happened to fall through I should not be overgrieved at it. The fear of letting that evil thought be read on my countenance kept me away from my friend. During those long days I refrained from going to the factory.

(To be continued.)

RECENT ADVANCES IN MEDICAL EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES.

BY W. D. HAMAKER, A.M., M.D.

UNTIL a comparatively recent period medical education in the United States was such that the best members of the profession were heartily ashamed of it. Even the best schools required but two years attendance on "lectures" which occupied but four or five months of each year; the lectures and instruction of every kind during the second year were simply a repetition of what had been given the first year; the examination at the end of the two years was such that very few failed to pass, and the result was that the American profession was crowded with poorly educated physicians. Many were not satisfied with this education and spent additional time in hospitals and in foreign schools, thereby fitting themselves to take front rank as teachers and practitioners in the large cities.

In great contrast with the American system of medical education were the systems in European countries, where from four to nine years were spent in the medical schools and rigid examinations required before a license to practice was granted. This insured good physicians for the people and prevented over-crowding of the profession by incompetents.

The easy road into the American profession allowed the number of physicians in this country to far exceed the requirements of the population. We had about one physician to every 500 inhabitants. In Pennsylvania in 1888 the State Board of Health reported the proportion to be one to 459. To show how great was the excess in the United States it is only necessary to say that in the most advanced European countries the proportion ranged from one to 2,484 in the Netherlands to one to 3,857 in Austro-Hungary. (In Norway one to 3,961 and in Russia one to 8,551.) "American doctor" was a byword abroad and no American diploma was recognized by European governments or faculties. I do not mean to say that there were no good physicians in America during this period, but the teaching was so inadequate and the great majority were so poorly educated that the whole profession suffered in reputation abroad.

Medical colleges had sprung up all over the country whose aim, it seemed, was to see which one could turn out the graduates with the least medical learning. "In the decade from 1880 to 1890 medical schools in the United States matriculated 115,355

students and graduated 40,996, or an average of more than 4,000 annually, twice as many as the requirements of the people demand." There were in the United States in 1894, according to Dr. William Pepper, 140 medical schools and 100,000 physicians; while in Sweden, Italy, Germany, Great Britain, Austro-Hungary, and France combined there were 75 medical schools and 74,238 physicians to attend to the wants of over 200,000,000 people.

The causes which had led to this state of affairs and for many years prevented the medical schools from keeping pace with the giant strides in other departments of learning in this country were, (1) the lack of endowments and state aid which is given in foreign countries (most of our state governments have not fostered the higher or university education); (2) the competition between the different medical colleges, conducted often as private enterprises, and the fear of losing students by putting up the courses or giving more severe examinations; (3) the salaries of the professors being regulated by the number of students; (4) the element of hurry and bustle of a new country, influencing the students themselves to rush through and get into the profession; (5) absence of state control of the admission of men into the ranks of those legally qualified to care for the lives and health of its citizens.

"Having no support other than the fees of students; without university or college connection; without support from the state, generally accorded other systems of education; without restraining legislative enactments; without laws regulating the granting of charters for purposes of medical instruction; it is indeed little wonder that at the end of the first century of our history as a nation chaos should reign supreme."

A diploma instead of being simply a scientific degree became a legal instrument authorizing its holder to practice medicine. Many states allowed men to practice who held no diploma and many practitioners held fraudulent diplomas. Even after the adoption of a law by New Jersey, requiring public registry of diplomas, about

ten per cent of those registered in that state were fraudulent. Under the Pennsylvania registry law the State Board of Health in 1888 reported 213 physicians who had registered as graduates of the following fraudulent medical colleges: "Eclectic Medical College of Philadelphia," "American University of Pennsylvania," "University of Medicine and Surgery of Philadelphia." "Buchanan diplomas" were also held by hundreds all over the country.

About twenty years ago there began a movement to advance the cause of medical education in this country. The University of Pennsylvania, the University of Michigan, Harvard University, and a few other schools adopted a three years' course. The length of the annual term was extended to six months. New methods of teaching were adopted, graded courses introduced, laboratory and bedside instruction made part of the curriculum, and many additional subjects taught. These schools met with much encouragement. A number of states adopted registry laws, requiring physicians to place on record copies of their diplomas. This served to show up the true character of many a diploma previously thought to be from a good school. But this law was ineffective as so many held diplomas legally issued who had very little education. About the same time several states, notably Illinois, adopted laws authorizing the State Board of Health to scrutinize all diplomas and to reject all that were fraudulent, or that were issued by colleges whose standard was below that required by the board. They were also authorized to examine candidates who had no diploma or whose diploma had not been accepted by the board. This was a most important step and exercised an immense influence upon the colleges whose officers did not wish them to be placed on the blacklist of any state.

The forward movement was now well under way with a steady improvement in some of the colleges when in 1887 Minnesota took the advance ground that the diplomas of nearly all colleges were being issued to incompetent men and passed a law requiring all applicants for the privilege of practicing

in that state to pass the examination of a board of examiners; none to be examined who had not graduated from a college having a curriculum approved by the board. The effect of this law has been very marked in diminishing the number of physicians from one in 650 to one in 1,000 inhabitants in this state and in stimulating the colleges to meet the requirements of the board and to prepare their students to pass the state examinations.

Other states after much trouble have adopted similar laws until at present about twenty-five states have a state examination for all applicants for license to practice. The standard has been steadily elevated until now they all require three or four years' study of medicine (the annual term being not less than six months); the applicant to present a diploma from a reputable medical college, whose standing and teaching have been investigated and approved; the applicant's personal character to be indorsed by other practitioners; and within two or three years the last advance has been made in demanding a certain amount of preliminary education, the aim being to make the minimum very soon equivalent to a high-school course.

No good argument can be advanced against a state exercising this power, simply a police power, for the protection of its citizens. We see courts requiring preliminary education of law students and a strict examination by committees of all that are admitted to the bar; the state examines for the civil service, and the medical officers of the army and navy are subjected to a most rigid examination before they are employed by the government. Why should not a state examine its physicians?

Being more familiar with the Pennsylvania law, largely copied from that of New York, I will state briefly its provisions and requirements. Owing to the opposition of the homeopathic and eclectic physicians to a mixed board, the cumbersome system was adopted of having three boards of examiners, who would do the examining for the three kinds of physicians, and a medical council or licensing body which would supervise the work of the boards. This council

is composed of the lieutenant-governor, the superintendent of public instruction, the president of the State Board of Health, the secretary of internal affairs, and the president of each of the examining boards. The three examining boards are each composed of seven members appointed by the governor from the members of the three state medical societies. These boards have at present one examination in June and one in December. The examinations have been conducted for two and a half years, during which time over 1,100 graduates have been examined, of which number about 13 per cent have been rejected. Candidates who fail can be examined every six months if they so desire.

The preliminary education requirement in Pennsylvania is now being gradually elevated with the view of demanding within a few years a complete high-school training as the minimum. At present preliminary examinations of those about to study medicine are held in ten cities in different parts of the state under the direction of the superintendent of public instruction. These examinations are in the following branches: arithmetic, grammar, orthography, American history, and English composition. This is not operative until 1900, but affects those beginning the study of medicine in 1896 or thereafter. Persons holding diplomas from a college, academy, seminary, normal, or high school, or those holding teachers' permanent certificates or teachers' provisional certificates with general average not less than two, or those having students' certificates of examination for admission to the freshman class of any college, are exempt from the preliminary examination. The necessity for this examination is painfully apparent to those whose duty it is to correct the papers at the regular examinations. Some papers show a lamentable lack of ordinary common-school education, as shown in the orthography and grammar.

The examinations by the boards of examiners are in writing and occupy twenty-one hours, extending over four days. Applicants for licenses are examined in anatomy, physiology, chemistry, hygiene, practice

of medicine, diagnosis, therapeutics, *materia medica*, pathology, surgery, and obstetrics. Seventy questions are submitted in all and an average minimum percentage of 75 is required to pass an applicant.

States which do not have strict laws become the dumping ground of other states and are compelled in self-defense to adopt the same measures. It is said that 1,100 physicians left Illinois when the law went into effect in the eighties. In New York the number of physicians receiving licenses is estimated to be about one half the number that annually "hung out their shingles" before the law was adopted. In some states the adoption of these laws was followed by suits in the different courts to determine whether the constitutional rights of individuals had not been taken away. The matter was finally decided by the United States Supreme Court, which held that the states had not exceeded their powers in exercising this police power for the good of the general public.

The laws creating examining and licensing bodies independent of teaching bodies have been more potent in raising the standard of the medical profession than any other measure: (1) They have compelled nearly all the colleges to lengthen their courses to four years and their annual terms to at least six months. (2) The colleges have taught their students more carefully and examined them more strictly, having the boards in wholesome fear. (3) The curricula of all the colleges have been changed materially and some professors ousted from their chairs for failing in their teaching to meet the modern demand. (4) A rivalry seems to have arisen lately among the best medical colleges to see which one can have the hardest curriculum. Harvard has decided that medical students must have a college degree and must spend four years of nine months each in the study of medicine. The University of Pennsylvania and other schools require an equally long term of medical training and the University of Pennsylvania has announced that its entrance examination will be made harder each year for those not having degrees or certificates, until in

1899 students having no degree will be examined in English, including grammar, Shakespeare, Milton, Macaulay, and other authors; history of the United States, Greece, and Rome; mathematics, including algebra and geometry; also one of the following languages: Latin, Greek, French, or German. That these universities have been sustained by the profession in the last few years is shown by the attendance of over 500 at the Harvard Medical School and over 800 at the University of Pennsylvania.

The number of physicians will be better proportioned to the requirements of the people and the people can have more confidence in physicians who have gone through this thorough course. The charlatan, also, traveling from one town to another, will gradually cease to prey on a credulous public. Men will be more willing to spend large sums of money in getting a good medical education knowing that they will not have to meet in competition a horde of incompetent physicians when they begin practice. Many practitioners with very little education are successful competitors, who by their address, their boasting, and the use of questionable methods may outstrip a well-prepared man for many years, since the people generally are not capable of forming a correct judgment in such a matter as a medical education. The result of the examinations shows the necessity that existed for them and the good work that has been done when it is seen that out of 4,670 physicians examined in the last few years by nine states 930, or 17.8 per cent, were rejected. In 1892 Dr. Millard had collected the statistics of Alabama, North Carolina, North Dakota, Virginia, and Minnesota and found that out of 1,950 examined 24.8 per cent had been rejected as unsafe practitioners. In 1892-94, 808 were examined in New York, of whom 15 per cent were rejected.

These laws have been generally indorsed by the American profession and supported by the medical journals of this country, and it is rare indeed to find any one outside of the profession who does not say that this legislation is of the highest importance.

"The existing opposition to this form of legislation is disappearing, being greatly confined at present to the charlatan, the faculties of a few of our low-grade schools, and the public press," says Millard.

The present aims of those most interested in higher medical education are: (1) to gradually raise the standard of preliminary

education; (2) to increase the severity of the state examinations; (3) to obtain uniform legislation in all the states and territories and coöperation between the different state boards so that there may be a system of reciprocity and the license of one state entitle a physician to practice in any other state.

THE FRUITS OF THE YEAR.

BY PROFESSOR BYRON D. HALSTED, SC.D.

OF RUTGERS COLLEGE.

THIS series of papers upon matters botanical, beginning early in the spring with an article upon flowers, has its natural ending in a consideration of fruits. As spring is the preparation for summer, and summer the antecedent of autumn, so flowers go before and prepare the way for the formation of fruit.

We saw that some kinds of flowers are much earlier than others. The snowdrop and crocus come from the cold earth and may even receive a blanket of snow while in full bloom. At the other end of the series are the autumn asters and gentians that lend their charm of floral colors to the late autumn, while the witch-hazel blooms obscurely amid the blaze of autumn leaf splendors or even after the foliage has browned and fallen for the year. As in the market of large cities, so in the woods and fields there are fresh fruits for nearly all seasons of the year.

For fear that the reader may have let the vacation weeks of summer or engrossing cares of some busy months dim his conception of a fruit, at a venture we will restate the facts in the case. There are some vague notions current as to what is and what is not a fruit. Therefore while it might be easier to treat our subject loosely it is not the purpose so to do. Anything almost might be looked upon as a "fruit of the year." The banker could legitimately consider his gains on bonds and stocks as his year's fruits. The seaside hotel keeper in the same light might view his short season's income, or the great railway corporation its receipts of the

year. But there are enough real fruits to engage our attention from which all these other results of effort borrow a fitting expression.

A fruit as used in a botanical sense is that portion of a plant that results from the maturing of a floral structure known as the pistil. The pistil is the centralmost portion of the blossom, to which other parts of the plant may adhere. It is the part of the flower that develops the seeds. This can all be made clear by the reader's making a collection of fruits. Some of them will be small and others large. Some may be gathered in the early summer, while others do not begin to form until late autumn. Some are matured in a few days while others require years for their perfection.

The simplest fruit that comes to mind is one like that of the pea plant. This fruit consists of the pod within which are the seeds. In the simplest of all fruits the number of seeds would be reduced to one—as they sometimes are in pea pods grown upon poor soil. In many other species of the pea family the pod as a rule contains but one seed and nearly all such are small and not easy to dissect. The pea pod splits when ripe, along two edges, and the seeds can fall out. Beans are of the same family, and they open in a somewhat similar manner. Clover is a near relative of the pea and bean, but in order to get the single little seed out of its pod the dry clover heads need to be run through a machine like a large grater to tear off the hull. Shelling peas and shelling

clover seed, while essentially the same operation, are widely different in method.

My boy was eating some peanuts yesterday and in getting the roasted nuts (seeds) out of the shell he was doing the same thing as the housewife who is shelling peas for dinner. The peanut pod does not open along two opposite lines so neatly as the garden pea, and bits of the dry shell of the former are apt to be scattered in unwelcome places by the small boy. By the way, the peanut comes from underground, and the plants at harvest time need to be pulled and the "nuts" removed in a manner similar to potatoes. It seems strange to have a fruit formed underground. The flowers from which the peanuts are to follow are unfolded above but near the surface of the soil; they afterward are carried down by the bending of the flower stalk and finally pushed under the ground. The peanut grower may help them in this burrowing by using a plow or hoe or both, so that the pods while quite small are buried and there underground they grow to maturity.

The mind naturally associates the production of fruit with the presence of sunshine; but there is quite a long list of plants that naturally form flowers and fruit below ground. Many of the wild violets are thus disposed to produce fruit and by pulling up the plants they may be found full of seed vessels that were never above ground. In other words the blossoms in inconspicuous and modified form were produced under the surface, become self-fertilized, and mature seed in subterranean fruits. Space does not permit of a discussion of the question of utility in these somewhat abnormal cases. Some grasses have their hidden (cleistogamic) flowers and with many other plants one needs to pull them from the soil to count their fruits.

The above remarks concerning subterranean fruits lead to a brief consideration of the relation of fruits to other portions of the plant. Ordinarily a plant is divided into the aerial and underground portions. The leaves are produced in the air and light that they may be acted upon by the sunshine by means of which the crude sap is made over

into materials for growth. It is the green portions, whether leaf or stem, that take part in this work of making plant food. On the other hand the flower usually is dependent upon the other parts of the plant for its materials for growth, and is independent of the sunshine. For example a squash plant kept in darkness would die; but if an opaque box were placed over a little squash, just through the blossoming stage, and all the remaining portion of the plant left to the free action of the sun, the fruit would grow and mature nearly as if in the bright sun. It is quite a common practice to put grape clusters in sacs of cloth or paper shortly after blossoming that the germs of decay may be kept off and the bloom of the surface of the fruit preserved. While these sacs admit much light it only illustrates the point that fruits do not hold the close relationship to the sun's rays that is necessary by leaves for healthy growth.

This seems almost a digression from the chosen topic of the fruits of the year; but in reality it is only a glance at a point in vegetable physiology as related to the formation of fruits. If analogies were to be indulged in we would look upon the foliage of plants, the individual leaves, as the wage earners, while the fruits are the home-keepers, using up the supplies obtained by the leaves in the production of offspring, namely, the seeds.

The amount of painstaking work done by the fruits in preparing their children, the seeds, for the struggle of life that lies before them is only appreciated by those who pause and consider these structures as they may be found upon every hand. Among the thousands of examples we may select a few. The reader may know the milkweeds, or silkweeds. There are many kinds of them, mostly coarse plants with large thick leaves which when snapped from the stem will exude a thick milk from the broken end. It is called silkweed because the stem has a fine fiberlike silk, and more particularly because of a structure upon the seeds. These milkweeds produce large roundish clusters of flowers, the delight of all sorts of insects. Following these flower clusters are

small boat-shaped pods which become a few inches long, rough upon the outside and abounding in milk until mature, when they split lengthwise upon one side and expose a multitude of beautifully arranged brown, flat, heel-shaped seeds, each provided with a silken plume of exceedingly delicate hairs. Not satisfied with making a great number of offspring the mother plant has provided each with a balloon by means of which it may take long flights in the moving air, and thus distribute the children over a wide extent of territory.

Let the reader watch from day to day a humble, bright-faced weed that is disliked because so common in the lawn. It is the dandelion, yellow as gold, one day in bloom, then drooping its head and holding the forming seeds tightly within a cover of overlapping leaves. A few days later the hollow stem rises from the inclined position, having elongated in the meantime, and unfolding the protective leaves there is exposed a fluffy ball of exquisite beauty and as full of forethought as an incubating egg. The drying air sets every sail and the breezes catch one and then another of these balloons, in the "basket" of each of which rides a young dandelion plant all ready for beginning an independent life when the favoring spot for growth is reached. In common language it is said with a feeling of disapproval that the weed has, like a sneak, escaped the lawn mower and gone to seed before its evil intentions were apparent. In botanical terms the lowly composite has worked out the serious problem of life in its own humbler way, with so much success that the word "dandelion" has its equivalent term in nearly all languages, and is to-day one of the most widely disseminated of all known plants.

Using the milkweed and dandelion it has been shown that there is an agent in the scattering of fruits. Instead of silken or feathery plumes many fruits have broad wings by means of which to fly. Some days in spring the air is quite filled with the flying seeds of the maple. Later on the elm scatters its offspring, which appear in the grasses or upon the sidewalk as counterfeit dimes. The ash observes the same method

and each pine cone as it opens out starts its seeds in their spiry flight. The list is endless of seeds and fruits provided with means of using the moving air as a method of dissemination, and we turn from it to a second series of constructions produced by fruits for the scattering far and wide of the offspring. It would seem that the closing chapter in the whole volume of seed formation is the one concerning methods of getting away from the place where the seed was formed. Animals as a rule can move from place to place all through their life; but plants of the higher types need to do all their migrations while in the fruit or seed condition.

One of the interesting things in this connection is the fact that plants have found out, so-to-speak, that animals are moving creatures and by attaching the fruits to them the plant offspring may secure a change of place. In two general ways this idea is developed and the desired results obtained. Illustrations of each will make this plain.

Every one is familiar with the coarse, homely weed known as the burdock—and none better than the wayside weeds have learned the best methods of transportation; they are ubiquitous, obnoxious, persistent, and all that, along the lanes and highways, as a result of their well-developed migratory structural features. But to return to the burdock; that is, a dock-like plant that bears burs—and it is these burs that interest us. Surrounding the cluster of delicate pink flowers is an imbricated cover of hook-tipped leaves. As a boy during the dark war days of the early sixties the writer in common with other lads utilized every possible object to exhibit the military spirit. These same green burs were hooked together in various forms and figures and then pressed upon our youthful shoulders to make us captains, colonels, or major-generals as fancy and the occasion suggested. The burdock burs furnished easily constructed and tightly adhering epaulets for us, but back of all that the mother plant had planned for the distribution of its offspring, which to a considerable number were safely infolded within the bur. The hair of pass-

ing animals, as of the horse or sheep, cow or dog, may be considered the natural structure to which these bur hooks were designed for clinging.

The plan of the burdock need not be dwelt upon further, and it is a type of thousands of kinds of fruits—fruits quite out of the ordinary acceptance of the term, for they are as far from being edible as the East is from the West. Anything more unpalatable than the sand-bur, with stout, keen needles standing out upon every side of the horny covering to the seed, it is difficult to imagine. The barefooted boy who runs among these plants, while riding himself of the spinose burs of the pest rarely pauses to reason upon the seed-structure he has encountered, although taking an active part in the deeply laid plan—in this instance a painful one. There are other grasses provided with such long, sharp, pointed barbs and awns that they do not stop with the wool-coat of the sheep or dog, but burrow through the skin and into the very vitals of animals and cause death. This is the extreme limit of fruit structures designed for migration by means of animals, and were it extended further its purpose would be defeated by cruelty and death to the animals involuntarily taking part in the scheme.

This is a fitting place to change the subject and glance at a more interesting side of seed and fruit distribution by means of animals. Instead of the bur or the "stick-tight" an illustration of the second group may be found in the strawberry, consisting of a luscious pulp with many seeds (fruits) scattered over the surface of the highly colored cone. The conclusion of the whole matter is seen from the beginning, for the bird that gladly swallows the fruit takes an active part in the dissemination of the minute indigestible seeds. The cherry is a fruit of a very different type, but constructed for the same end. In this case the seed is comparatively large, inclosed within the stony pit, and outside of all is the acceptable pulp inclosed by a tough, shiny skin, and withal a most attractive object as it hangs temptingly upon the tree. That

the plan does not miscarry is proved by the long, heated arguments pro and con as to the proper place of the robin in horticulture, some fruit growers holding firmly to the view that the only good robin is a dead one.

Berries are one of the common forms of fruit and essentially they are seed vessels with a rich pulp and an attractive color. The mother plant in short puts up her seeds in "lunch baskets" and animals, large and small, make a business of securing these "baskets," using up the soft parts and voiding the indigestible seeds, thus gladly playing their part in the dissemination of the plant offspring and thus increasing the probability of there being a future good supply for their own berry-loving young.

There are other methods by which the seeds become scattered than those by animals and currents of air. Water travel is not uncommon among seeds—in short it is the leading way of plant migration. By ocean currents the seeds of one country and continent find their way to another. The cocoanut with its thick shell to protect the tender parts within is incased in a fiber that is light and impervious to water. Such a structure, although as large as a man's head, may fall from the top of the cocoanut tree unbroken, and if upon the shore of some ocean island may float away, driven by wind and current across the sea for a thousand miles. Smaller seeds in many instances will float. All those provided with wings become boats, so-to-speak, upon the water and go down streams for long distances. The borders of the mouth of rivers bear representatives of the flora along all its upper waters. But the greatest movement of seeds and fruits by water is in the field where they are produced, and by means of the minute and temporary rivulets formed quickly during a heavy shower or larger storm. It is then that the multitudes of seeds are lifted from where they may have fallen and moved on for an inch, a foot, or a longer distance, possibly to be taken into the brook, and then on and on until the forming mud bar is reached at the shore of the ocean.

Other fruits have the capacity within themselves of bursting with violence and casting the seeds for considerable distances. This type of fruit is illustrated in the *Impatiens* (touch-me-not) and a long list of other springing pods and capsules. They evidence an independence not shown in the "catch-alls," the "aëronauts," or "sailors." The juicy berries show a spirit of reciprocity; but the "catapults" in fruits do the whole work of seed dissemination by a sudden discharge of the offspring, often with violence and utter ruin of the capsule and no small noise. In autumn the trained ear may detect the seed bombardment that goes on in the meadow and the woods. The witch-hazel blooms late in the autumn and explodes its fruits the next season.

As the end of space draws near the writer wonders where he had best leave his readers. We started out in the springtime by finding the first flowers opening their buds to the vivifying sun upon the sheltered knolls. What else we have done or attempted to do must be left unreviewed, and now the growing season draws near its close. Some of its fruits we have glanced

at, but mostly from the plant-mother's standpoint.

The edible fruits have been the delight of man, and by studying them intensely and practically the art of horticulture is blossoming into a department of science. The list is long of the fruits of the orchard and vineyard. Each land and people has its favorites and with the present facilities for cheap and rapid transportation the fair fruits of every clime may be found in the markets of the world. What better, then, can here be done than to leave the group of CHAUTAUQUAN readers at the sale counters and stands in a metropolitan city, where the lemon and the plantain vie with plums and apricots grown three thousand miles apart, or the orange and grape touch with a charm their antipodes, the pears and peaches nestling in the garnished basket of the artistic fruiterer. Only those without sense of sight, smell, and taste can fail in a response that physiologically results in a flow of liquid from the salivary glands. At such a fragrant booth—an enchanting bower of beauty—the reader may further pursue the investigation of the fruits of the year.

AT FORDHAM.

(The home of Edgar Allan Poe.)

BY HENRY JEROME STOCKARD.

NOT here he dwelt, but down some path unknown
 That winding sinks into night's spectral vale,
 Where prisoned, uneasy winds forever wail,
 And plangent seas on dolorous shores intone.
 His charmed cloud-built home was there upthrown,
 Engirt by marsh and mere and wastes of bale;
 No foot save his e'er trod those reaches pale;
 His were those tracts abandoned, his alone.
 There with hushed breath he heard the thin, far strains
 Of Israfel steal through his haunted room,
 Or caught the nearer, clearer clank of chains;
 Now o'er him leaned Lenore in deathless bloom;
 Now, while the blood slowed, freezing in his veins,
 Some goblin shivered in upon the gloom!

SEA SCULPTURE.

BY BISHOP H. W. WARREN, LL.D.

WHEN the Russians charged on the Grivitza redoubt at Plevna they first launched one column of men that they knew would be all shot down long before they could reach it. But they made a cloud of smoke under the cover of which a second column was launched. They would all be shot down. But they carried the covering cloud so far that a third column broke out of it and successfully carried the redoubt. They carried it, but ten thousand men lay on the death-smitten slope.

So the great ocean sends eight or ten thousand columns a day to charge with flying banners of spray on the rocky ramparts of the shore at Santa Cruz, California.

There are not many things in the material world more sublime than a thousand miles of crested waves rushing with terrible might against the rocky shore. While they are

yet some distance from the land a small boat can ride their foaming billows, but as they approach the shallower places they seem to take on sudden rage and irresistible force. Those roaring waves rear up two or three times as high. They have great perpendicular fronts down which Niagaras are pouring. The spray flies from their tops like the mane of a thousand wild horses charging in the wind. No ship can hold anchor in the breakers. They may dare a thousand storms outside, but once let them fall into the clutch of this resistless power and they are doomed. The waves seem frantic with rage, resistless in force; they rush with fury, smite the cliffs with thunder, and are flung fifty feet into the air; with what effect on the rocks we will try to relate.

No. 1 of our illustrations shows "The Breakers," a house of that name where



NO. 1. THE BREAKERS, SANTA CRUZ, CAL.

hospitality, grace, and beauty abide: where hundreds of roses bloom in a day, and where flowers, prodigal as God's creative processes, abound. The breakers from which the house is named are not seen in the picture. When the wind has been blowing maybe one hundred miles out at sea, they come racing in from the point, feather-crested, a dozen at once, to show how rolls the far Wairoa at some other world's end. All these pictures are taken in the calm weather, or there would be little seen besides the great leaps of spray. At the bottom of the cliff appear the nodules and boulders that were too hard to be bitten into dust and have fallen out of the cliff, which is fifty feet high, as the sea eats it away.

This house is at the beginning of the famous Cliff Drive that rounds the lighthouse at the point and stretches away for miles above the ever-changing, now beautiful, now sublime, and always great Pacific, that rolls its six thousand miles of billows toward us from Hong Kong. Occasionally the road must be set back, and once the lighthouse was moved back

from the cliffs, eaten away by the edacious tooth of the sea.

As Emerson says, "I never count the hours I spend in wandering by the sea: like God it useth me." There is a wideness like his mercy, a power like his omnipotence, a persistence like his patience, a length of work like his eternity.

The rocks at Santa Cruz, like many other places, were laid in regular order like the leaves of a book on its side. But by various forces they have been crumpled, some torn out, and in many places piled together. These layers, beginning at the bottom, are as follows: (1) igneous granite, unstratified; (2) limestone laid down from life in the ocean, metamorphosed by heat and all fossils thereby destroyed; (3) limestone highly crystalized, composed of fossil shells and very hard; (4) sandstone, made under the sea from previous rock powdered, having huge concretionary masses with a shell or a pebble as a nucleus around which the concretion has taken place; (5) shale from the sea also; (6) conglomerate, or drift, deposited by ice in the famous glacial cold snap; (7) allu-



vium soil deposited in fresh water and composed partly of organic matter. In our sec-

And so it happens that the air is driven up through some crack in the rock and the superincumbent earth, one or two hundred feet from the shore, and a great hole appears in the ground from 20 to 70 feet deep. Then the water spouts fiercely up and returning carries back the earth and broken rock into the sea.

No. 3 of the illustrations here given represents such a great excavation 100 feet



NO. 3. NATURAL BRIDGE, SANTA CRUZ, CAL.

ond illustration some of these layers, or strata, may be distinguished.

When the awful blows of the sea smite the rock, if it finds a place less hard than others it wears into it a slight depression, after half a hundred thousand strokes, more or less, and ever after, as the years go by, it drives its wedges home in that place. A shallow cave results. Then the waters converge on the sides of the cave and meet with awful force in the middle. Thus a tunnel is excavated, like a drift in a mine, each wave making the tremendous charge and the reflowing surges bringing away all the detritus. This tunnel may be driven or excavated 200 feet inland, under the shore.

back from the shore. It is 150 feet long by 90 wide and over 50 feet deep. All the material has been carried out to sea by the reflux wave. On the natural bridge seen in front the great crowd in Broadway, New York, might pass or a troop of cavalry could be maneuvered. Through the arch a ship with masts 30 feet high might enter at high tide. Through the abutment of the arch



NO. 4. NATURAL ARCH, SANTA CRUZ, CAL.

At each inrush of the wave the air is terribly condensed before it. It seeks outlet where the afternoon sun pours its brightness the waves have cut other arches not

visible in the picture. When the arches become too many or too wide the natural bridge will fall and be carried out to sea like many another.

But what does the sea do with the harder

jection cut through. Since the picture was taken the bridge has fallen, the detritus been carted away by the waves, and the pier stands lonely in the sea.

No. 5 shows one bridge exceedingly frail



NO. 5. DOUBLE NATURAL ARCH, SANTA CRUZ, CAL.

parts of the cliff? Its waves wear away the rock on each side and leave one or more long fingers reaching out into the sea. The wear and tear on such a projection is immense. A strong swimmer may play with the breakers away from the cliff. At exactly the right moment he may dive head-long through the pearly green Niagara that has not yet fallen quite to his head and may sport in the comparatively quiet water beyond, while the wild ruin falls with a sound of thunder on the beach. But let him once be caught and dashed against the rocks and there is no more life or wholeness of bones within him.

In the swirl of converging currents between two rocky projections, as the coarse sand and gravel is surged around a few hundred thousand times, there is a great tendency to wear through the wall of the projecting finger. It is often done. Illustration No. 4 shows at low tide such a pro-

and another more substantial nearer the famous Cliff Drive. I go to the frail one every year with anxiety lest I shall find it has been carried away. How I wish I could show my readers the delicate sculpture and carving further back, nearer yet to the drive. But note the various strata, the rocks worn to a point as even the milder waves run over them; note the cracks that tell of the awful push and stress of the titanic struggle.

Illustration six shows three such under-hewn arches. The long projection of rock is so curved as to prevent the arches being fully seen in any one view. I have waded and swam through these rocky vistas and there, where any more than moderate waves would have mangled me against the tusks of the cruel rocks, I have found little specimens of aquatic life by the millions, clinging fast to the rocks that were home to them and protecting themselves by taking lime out of the water and building such a solid



NO. 6. TRIPLE NATURAL ARCH, SANTA CRUZ, CAL.

wall of shell that no fierceness of the wildest storm could work them harm. All these seek their food from Him who feeds all life, and he heaves the ocean up to their mouths that they may drink.

No. 7 shows what has been a quadruple arch, only one part of which is still standing. Out in the sea, lonely and by itself, appears a pier, scarcely emergent from the waves, which once supported an arch parallel to the one now standing and also one at right angles to the shore. The one now standing makes the fourth. But the ever-working sea carves and carries away arch and shore alike. At some points a careful and even admiring observer sees little change for years, but the remorseless tooth gnaws on unceasingly.

On the right near the point is seen a board sign. It says here as in many other places "Danger." Sometimes two converging waves meet at the land, rise unexpectedly, sweep over the point irresistibly, and carry away any one who stands there.



NO. 7. REMAINS OF A QUADRUPLE NATURAL ARCH, SANTA CRUZ, CAL.

The illustration which follows is another example of an arch cut through the rocky barrier of the shore. But in this case the trend of the less hard rock was at such an angle to the shore that the sea broke into



NO. 8. NATURAL ARCH NEAR THE CLIFF DRIVE, SANTA CRUZ, CAL.

the channel once more, and then the combined waves from the two entrances forced the passage far inland. It terminates in another natural bridge and deep excavation beyond, which are not shown in the picture.

What becomes of this comminuted rock, cleft by wedges of water, scoured over by hundreds of tons of sharp sand? It is carried out by gentle undercurrents into the bay and ocean, and laid down where winds never blow nor waves ever beat, as gently as dust falls through the summer air.

It incloses fossils of the plant and animal life of to-day. There rest in nature's own sepulcher the skeletons of sharks and whales of to-day and possibly of man. Sometime, if the depths become heights, as they have in a thousand places in the past, a fit intelligence may read therein much of the present history of the world. We say to that coming age, as a past age has said to us, "Speak to the earth and it shall teach thee, and the fishes of the sea shall declare unto thee."

THE SPEAKER OF THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES.

BY HENRY H. SMITH.

THE Constitution of the United States, in Article I., Section II. (Clause 5), contains the following provision: "The House of Representatives shall chuse their speaker and other officers."

A careful examination of Vol. V. of the "Madison Papers" containing the debates on the confederation and Constitution which volume is the supplement to Elliott's "Debates"—discloses the fact that the first

proposition providing for the election of a speaker of the House of Representatives was submitted by Mr. Charles Pinckney, of South Carolina, on the 29th day of May, 1787, in his "plan of the federal Constitution."

That plan provided that "the legislative power shall be vested in the Congress, to consist of two houses, one to be called the House of Delegates and the other the Senate"; and

provided that the former should "exclusively possess the power of impeachment, and shall choose its own officers." That proposition went through the various stages of committee examination and report and on August 6 Mr. John Rutledge, of South Carolina, made the report of the Committee on Detail, in which appears as Section VI., Article IV., the following: "The House of Representatives shall have the sole power of impeachment. It shall choose its speaker and other officers."

This section of the report was taken up on Thursday, August 9, 1787, and agreed to without debate. On Saturday, September 15, after making the final revision of the Constitution, as perfected by the Committee on Detail and the convention, the members proceeded to sign the Constitution, and Clause 5 in Section II. of Article I. therein appears to have been signed as quoted, with the exception that the word "chuse," which now appears in the final copy of the Constitution, was spelled "choose."

The history of the constitutional provision in respect to the office of speaker of the House of Representatives shows that the convention accepted the law of Parliament governing and controlling the speaker of the House of Commons as proper to govern and control the speaker of the House of Representatives of the United States.

The power lodged with the speaker of the House of Commons at this time is in marked

contrast with that possessed when the Constitution of the United States was adopted; but, great as it is, it falls far short of that possessed (or exercised) by the speaker of the House of Representatives at the present time. That official is to-day practically the second officer of the government. He appoints the committees of the House, which under the Constitution originate revenue bills and under the practice originate general appropriation bills; appoints the conferees on the part of the House on all conference committees; appoints the chairman of the committees of the whole House; has the sole power of recognition (from which there is no appeal); is chairman of the Committee on Rules—now the most important committee of the House—and practically dictates the action of the House of Representatives.

The political future of many members of the House rests in the favor of and recognition

by the speaker. He may make or unmake them, either by committee assignments or refusal to recognize them for the consideration of local bills unanimously reported from committees, many of which have passed the Senate. If the speaker, upon a cursory examination of a bill and report, should decide it "inexpedient for the bill to pass at this time," that is the end of the matter. The member cannot reach it in the "regular order of business," for there is no such proceeding, save as to revenue



SPEAKER THOMAS B. REED.

and general appropriation bills and "special orders," reported from the Committee on Rules. It is stated by an officer of the House of Representatives that of the thirteen hundred odd bills which passed the House at the last session nearly four fifths were passed outside of the "regular order of business," which was proceeded with (excluding pension night sittings) but twice during the entire session.

It is a most remarkable fact that the speaker is barely mentioned in the Constitution; that his powers and functions are nowhere prescribed therein; that, while the statutes devolve certain duties upon the speaker they relate purely to ministerial duties, such as the administration of oaths, the certification of salaries and other accounts, the appointment of visitors to the military and naval academy, and the like, while the rules of the House "touching the duty of the speaker" merely prescribe a duty or direct the manner in which he shall discharge certain duties of his office.

Mr. Cushing says that the "parliamentary powers and duties of the speaker are derived from the Constitution and laws of the United States; the rules of the House; the rulings or decisions of speakers, and general parliamentary law as established by English and American practice, especially that of state legislatures."

This statement is erroneous in a vital point; *i. e.*, as to powers derived from the Constitution, which I have above noted. As to powers derived from the statutes, none of these relate to or prescribe his duties while presiding over the House of Representatives. He is, of course, bound to observe and enforce the rules of the House; but he is not bound by the ruling of a previous speaker unless he chooses to accept it. As to the English practice it is proper to say that it cuts no figure whatever with the speaker, except so far as it may be incorporated in the rules of the House; while as to practice in state legislatures, it is rarely referred to and has little or no weight, either with the speaker or the members.

Speaker Macon was the first speaker to assert his constitutional right to vote, not-

withstanding a prohibition in the rules of the House to the contrary. He was the first speaker who led his party from the chair, and, though he did not take the floor, he exercised no small degree of influence, through trusted friends and lieutenants, in influencing legislation.

Henry Clay was the first speaker (1811) who, from the moment of his assumption of the chair, led his party almost without opposition. He was elected in a great national crisis, and his election was largely due to the timidity of President Madison, who was regarded as unfit to direct military operations—then imminent—against England, as well as to the feeling that he alone could control, or restrain, "John Randolph of Roanoke." He was the first and only representative elected to the speakership during his first term in the House, and he was the first speaker to assert and exercise his right to vote when that vote made no difference in the result.

There was no pronounced partisanship by the speaker until the advent of Andrew Stevenson, of Virginia, in the Twentieth Congress. He had little or no respect for the rules and precedents of the House and violated them constantly, whenever it suited his purpose, in order to promote his party's interest. He was the willing tool of president Jackson and was punished for his subserviency by the Senate, which rejected his nomination as minister to England.

Down to the Thirtieth Congress there was no other speaker of note save James K. Polk, of Tennessee, who was elected in the Twenty-fourth Congress. He was a fair presiding officer, but, like Stevenson, was distinctly a party man and aroused bitter feelings among the minority members.

The election of Robert C. Winthrop, of Massachusetts, as speaker of the Thirtieth Congress increased the dignity of the office of speaker. He was an ardent Whig and his election by a majority of one illustrated the independence of representatives at that time. The feeling was general that there had been a gradual assumption by the speaker of the powers legitimately belonging to the committees and the House. Committees had

been arranged to favor or influence certain great questions in accordance or harmony with the views of the president. This feeling was well expressed by Joshua Giddings, who, in a letter to Horace Greeley, said:

The speaker exerts more influence over the destinies of the nation than any other member of the government except the president. He arranges the committees to suit his own views. If a Whig, in favor of prosecuting the war, be elected speaker he will so arrange the committees as to secure reports approving the continuance of our conquests in Mexico. If committees be opposed to the war he will so arrange them as to have a report in favor of the withdrawing of our troops.

By all students of congressional proceedings and parliamentary practice it is conceded that Mr. Winthrop was one of the fairest presiding officers ever elected as speaker of the House of Representatives. He filled the office with dignity and many of his decisions were either incorporated into the standing rules of the House or became well-recognized precedents of its parliamentary practice. He realized that the speakership was in part a political office, but he did not lead his party. In the following Congress he was defeated by Howell Cobb, of Georgia (Democrat), who did not entertain the high opinion of the dignity and impartiality of the office of speaker entertained by Mr. Winthrop, but used the office in every possible way in behalf of southern interests and those of his party, and his successor, Linn Boyd, of Kentucky, emulated in a feeble way the bad example of his predecessor.

The election of Nathaniel P. Banks, of Massachusetts—after a long contest—in the Thirty-fourth Congress brought to the chair one of the most popular and well-equipped of all the speakers. He was prompt, positive, and impartial, but always courteous, and, though he occupied the chair during the period of bitter political strife, left it without enemies. He did not assert or attempt to assert the leadership of his party, and he maintained to the end of his life—serving sixteen years afterward on the floor—that the office of speaker was not political, but executive and parliamentary. He had the New England idea that he was a “moderator” of the House of Repre-

sentatives; he felt it his duty to be fair to the minority, and while many of his rulings perhaps went too far in that direction he was never reversed but once, and that action was subsequently reversed by the House.

The “Holman Amendment,” adopted at the commencement of the Forty-fourth Congress, when the Democrats regained the House, by which “riders” on general appropriation bills were made in order, provided they “retrenched expenditures”—even by a single dollar—was regarded by General Banks as an “iniquitous rule, smacking of the rule of the Commune.” To the writer—then journal clerk of the House—he said: “This rule robs the House and all its committees—save Appropriations—of practically all power over general legislation, save by reversing the ruling of the chair. You may live to see a ruling of the speaker reversed, but I shall not, and it is fortunate that the House has so conservative and fair a man in the chair as Mr. Kerr to administer that vicious rule. A bold and aggressive partisan like Mr. Randall could easily make himself president with such vast power.”

That was in 1876. General Banks has been dead two years, but no ruling of any speaker since that time has been reversed. That rule—or amendment—was rejected in the Forty-ninth and Fiftieth Congresses under the lead of Speaker Carlisle, and in the Fifty-first and Fifty-fourth Congresses under Speaker Reed, and was again adopted in the Fifty-second and Fifty-third Congresses under the lead of Speaker Crisp. For it has been substituted the “tyranny of the speaker,” through the Committee on Rules, in the form of “special orders” overriding the rules.

The war period (1860) brought in Galusha A. Grow, of Pennsylvania, as speaker of the Thirty-seventh Congress. Mr. Grow was active, alert, and well equipped, and with the aid of that fearless leader on the floor, Thaddeus Stevens, easily controlled the House, for it was a “war Congress,” with a helpless Democratic minority. He failed of reelection

and was succeeded by Schuyler Colfax, of Indiana, an active, brilliant, and aggressive member, who carried out the views of President Lincoln and was the first Republican member-elect of the Thirty-ninth Congress to oppose President Johnson's policy. He was an imitator of Clay, but never a leader, being overshadowed by stronger men in the House, like Stevens, Schenck, Conkling, Blaine, and others.

The record of Mr. Blaine as speaker is too well known to require extended statement. His previous service in the House admirably equipped him for that office, and before the end of his first term (Forty-first Congress) he had become the political leader of his party in the House. He had all of Colfax's parliamentary and political skill and tact, and he had what Colfax had not—audacity, aggressiveness, and the natural qualities of leadership. He led his party in the House without trouble—save his contest with General Butler—and as absolutely directed its proceedings and legislation as Clay had done. He was the first speaker who used the power of his office to further his candidacy for the presidency. He took counsel of the leading Republican members of the House, but did not always follow their advice. His rulings were adroit and plausible, which led the late Vice President Wheeler to say to the writer: "Mr. Blaine can always give a good reason for a bad decision. In that regard he has neither superior nor equal."

Summing up his career as speaker, it is undoubtedly true that his control, or attempted control, of legislation, with the hostility of General Grant's friends—represented by Senator Conkling—twice defeated his nomination for president (1876 and 1880) and in 1884 defeated his election. The country had seen the result of his leadership as speaker, and thousands of independent Republicans feared his leadership as president.

His successor, Michael C. Kerr, of Indiana, was a man of high character, ability, and a good parliamentarian. Ill health prevented the accomplishment of any substantial results by Mr. Kerr, save a

large reduction in annual expenditures, and that was the work largely of Samuel J. Randall, chairman of the Appropriations Committee. Mr. Kerr though an earnest partisan was a fair and just presiding officer. He died shortly after the adjournment of the session, in August, 1876, and was succeeded by Mr. Randall at the next session.

Mr. Randall was a bold, aggressive partisan, and followed the example of Speakers Clay and Blaine. He went farther in some respects than either of his models had gone in controlling legislation, going so far as to act as a House conferee (by way of substitute and informally) on two important appropriation bills. The rules as revised during the Forty-sixth Congress—his last term—greatly increased the power of the speaker and accomplished their purpose of retarding and preventing tariff legislation.

He was succeeded by General J. Warren Keifer, of Ohio, in the next Congress. He was a "stalwart" partisan, and his ruling that "the constitutional right of the House 'to determine the rules of its proceedings' cannot be impaired by the indefinite repetition of dilatory motions" was the first step toward the crushing out of "filibustering." He was prepared to count a quorum of members present but not voting, but as Mr. Reed, ex-Governor Robinson, of Massachusetts, Mr. Kasson, and other prominent Republicans were opposed to that action and would not sustain him on appeal he abandoned that purpose.

He was succeeded by John G. Carlisle, of Kentucky, who defeated Mr. Randall on the issue of tariff reform. Mr. Carlisle became a "political speaker," but not offensively so. His committees were constituted on the line or issue on which he was elected. He was not arbitrary, but positive. His rulings were eminently fair, and of a judicial cast, and won for him the respect of the Republican members, and generally, it may be said, the confidence of the country. He permitted filibustering—allowing one member to hold the House in deadlock for three days—because he feared to change

the rules by amendments which might promote general legislation: for, until the Fiftieth Congress, owing to Mr. Randall's opposition and following, he could not pass a tariff bill through the House, and then only succeeded by partially dismantling the Committee on Appropriations and rejecting the Holman Amendment, both laudable reforms, but of Republican inspiration.

When his successor, Thomas B. Reed, of Maine, was made speaker filibustering had reached the point of rank absurdity, if not idiocy, in the Fiftieth Congress. The country was sick of it. The Republicans had a slender majority in the House, and a vigorous and aggressive man was needed in the chair. Mr. Reed had voted against the Tucker Amendment in the Forty-sixth Congress, which proposed to count members present but not voting for the purpose of securing a quorum, and was opposed to Speaker Keifer so ruling in the Forty-seventh Congress. When, on January 29, 1890, he counted and directed the clerk to enter on the journal the names of certain Democratic members as "present and refusing to vote," and announced the presence of a quorum in the hall, he did so without either constitutional, legal, or parliamentary authority. There were no rules, and the House was proceeding under what is termed "common parliamentary law"—as interpreted by the speaker. Lying in his desk was a proposed code of rules containing a clause authorizing the counting, for the purpose of a quorum, of members present and refusing to vote. But Mr. Reed had determined on another procedure, and he boldly cut the Gordian knot and counted a quorum.

It had been done seven years before by Lieutenant Governor Hill, in the New York Senate, and the precedent was quoted. That ruling, though savagely assailed at the time by Republicans and many Democrats—notably Mr. Carlisle—had stood the test of the courts and was justified by constitutional and statutory provisions or requirements, conditions missing in respect to Mr. Reed's ruling. The furious storm blew over and the country justified it. The pro-

posed clause shortly afterward became a rule and was adopted in the last Congress in a changed and clumsy form. Mr. Reed was vindicated, and filibustering is a thing of the past in the House of Representatives. That ruling has not been vindicated—as many suppose—by the United States Supreme Court, but the constitutionality of the rule has been, in the case of *United States vs. Ballin*, the decision being that the rule was a constitutional mode of determining the presence of a quorum.

Speaker Crisp succeeded Mr. Reed, and though he went back to the Democratic rules of the Fiftieth Congress he brought in a new form of parliamentary "tyranny" that was more obnoxious than the so-called "Reed rules." It was the tyranny of the Committee on Rules, of which he was chairman. Speaker Crisp went farther than Speaker Reed had ever dreamed of doing when he ruled that not even "the question of consideration could be raised against a report from the Committee on Rules." Speaker Crisp proved a vigorous and aggressive political leader, and a good parliamentarian. He made some rulings, however, which cannot be defended on any sound principle of parliamentary law or practice—notably in sustaining the "special order" proposing to concur in the Senate amendments to the Wilson Tariff Bill while the bill and amendments were in the possession of the Senate.

It may be fairly said that the power of the speaker culminated—so far as the rules and rulings are concerned—in the last Congress. Speaker Reed has reversed some of Mr. Crisp's rulings, but he has controlled legislation to a far greater extent than Speaker Crisp was able to do. His candidacy for the presidency made this, perhaps, not only natural but, on the eve of a presidential campaign, a political necessity. It was his view of his personal and political duty as speaker, and he "done it." That it incurred bitter enmities in his own party, and to some extent affected his candidacy for president, is undisputed.

The House of Representatives has grown to be an unwieldy body of 356 members,

which the next census will doubtless increase. Shall the next—and future—Congresses be governed by the speaker or by its committees, to which the House has committed or subdivided its jurisdiction? Shall the Committee on Rules—which practically is the speaker—control and direct the order of business, or shall there be a larger “Committee on Rules and Order of Business,” representing, say, the thirteen important committees of the House—and thereby every section of the country—to decide the order of business? That is the great problem which confronts the next House of Representatives, which will doubtless meet in extra session in March or April next to provide revenue for the support of the government without resorting to the sale of bonds.

CONTAMINATION OF OUR MUNICIPAL WATER SUPPLIES.

BY FRANK J. THORNEBURY, M. D.

LECTURER ON BACTERIOLOGY, UNIVERSITY OF BUFFALO.

WATER constitutes about three fourths of the human body, as well as other animal tissues. The blood and the brains are each about four fifths water, while the fluid secretions and excretions contain more than nine tenths of their weight of the limpid fluid.

The most useful property of water is its power to dissolve numerous substances, its solvent properties being nearly universal. To this property it owes its value as a cleansing agent, and it may safely be said that no other element in nature sustains so important relations to the living system as does pure water.

Though water undergoes no change in the body and hence takes no part in the development of force, it is absolutely essential to the performance of the vital functions, its pressure being necessary to enable the various organs to perform their offices in the maintenance of the activities of life.

The circulatory system is especially dependent upon this element. Water is the menstruum which floats the blood corpuscles and suspends the varied nourishing and nutritive elements which form the blood. By its aid the nutrient particles destined to enter into the structure of the body are conveyed to the most minute and remote fibers of the intricate human mechanism where repair of function is demanded, water being so limpid and mobile that it can circulate through the most delicate capillaries or channels without friction, and can even find

its way by absorption into parts inaccessible by openings.

Every movement and every thought causes the destruction of a portion of the living tissues, which are thus converted into dead and poisonous matter that must be carried out of the system with great rapidity. Water is the agent which performs this action. It dissolves these poisons wherever it comes in contact with them, and then through the kidneys, liver, skin, lungs, and other emunctories it is expelled from the body, still holding in solution the animal poisons which are so rapidly fatal if retained.

The purest water obtainable should be drunk, as water can hold in solution only a certain amount of solids, and if, therefore, it is already loaded with impurities, such as lime and other mineral salts, and with poisonous organic matter, its solvent power is necessarily impaired and an extra labor is placed upon the kidneys, which results finally in overwork, inefficient action, and only partial removal of poisonous matter from the system, thereby predisposing to disease of the kidneys, rheumatism, gout, gravel, diabetes, etc.

Pure water is colorless, odorless, and without taste. Prof. Charles Mayr says: “Those who have never drunk pure water do not realize what a beneficial effect it has upon the kidneys. For people who have a tendency to dropsy or kidney disease nothing is better than pure water. For the healthy it is the greatest of luxuries. For the sick

no blessing is superior. With the young it keeps the machinery of the body in a state of perfect development and wards off the diseases to which early life is most susceptible, while for old age it readily dissolves and carries off the toxic secretions which weakening organs are unable to wholly eliminate. Therefore it is that no subject is so closely related to the well-being of the human race as water."

The frequent and widespread recurrence of typhoid fever and other diseases classified as zygomatic, and the general prevalence, especially among people of advancing years, of diseases of the excretory organs—gall stones, gravel, diabetes, and the like—are now stated by all biologists to be in many instances due to the use of impure water. Every cholera epidemic for the last fifty years has been definitely traced to this source.

It is a fact well known to physicians and many other individuals that a person can live longer without food than without water; indeed pure water is more necessary for the maintenance of our bodies than solid foods. Hence it should be imbibed freely. Instinct, reason, and science teach us that only pure water should be used. Many people drink too little water, knowing that only pure water should be used, which is not at all times readily obtainable. The lack of sufficient water effects the system harmfully in many ways, and leads to various diseased conditions, the real cause of which may not be suspected. These facts have been verified repeatedly by our ablest physiologists.

Competent observers have come to the conclusion that most of the noted and popular mineral springs of the world depend for their popularity on the use of the water in very large quantities—the system being virtually flushed out—rather than to the unusual properties which the water may possess. People who are ill flock to these springs and imbibe large quantities of water, which their bodies need but have previously been denied. As a result they are improved, and the health resort receives the credit when the change has really been due to the large amount of water which they drank during their sojourn. Had they remained

at home, taken corresponding rest and recreation, and used freely a properly distilled and aerated water the results undoubtedly would often have been equally as good.

Though contaminated water may cause many diseases, as stated, the two most frequent thus communicated are typhoid fever and cholera. The latter diseases are caused by germs which, swallowed in drinking water, grow and multiply in the stomach and intestines and generate the poison which causes the disastrous consequences. These germs often get into well water, hydrant water, and even into mineral spring and cistern water, and the most careful examination will sometimes fail to detect them. Boiling destroys them, but filtering does not absolutely insure their exclusion. Professor Simpson, a noted scientist and physician, thus refers to the matter: "The complacency with which we swallow the filthy, impure, disease-bearing water which is delivered through poisonous pipes to our homes affords a spectacle of self-abasement as melancholy as it is disgusting."

We have proof that an insufficient quantity of drinking water is a frequent source of disease. George Henry Fox, M.D., professor of diseases of the skin in the New York College of Physicians and Surgeons, says in a recent article on this subject: "It is quite certain that few people drink too much water, and I feel sure that many unpleasant feelings and symptoms of actual disease would quickly disappear if the sufferers only appreciated the value of this best and cheapest of all remedies [pure water]."

Dr. Charles L. Dana, professor of nervous diseases in the New York Postgraduate Medical School, in an article on diet in nervous diseases says: "Water should be drunk between meals or before meals, and a moderate amount at meals. At least three pints, or about six tumblerfuls, should be taken daily. American neurotics do not drink water enough. They have half dessicated nerves, and dessication increases nervous irritability."

Natural water taken from wells, springs, rivers, or lakes often contains vast quan-

tities of poisonous organic matter in the form of sewage, drainage of distilleries, tanneries, factories, and hospitals; also decomposing animal matter, manures from the land, etc., all of which are dissolved and carried into the water, thereby forming a vast culture field and favorable condition for the propagation of contained microorganisms. It is thus difficult to estimate the dangers which may lurk in a natural water supply.

The chief hygienic significance of contact with animal matter consists in the possibility of the ingress of pathogenic microbes, which may at any time be present in sewage and animal refuse. It is obvious that the presence of even minute quantities of sewage in drinking waters must be viewed with the greatest suspicion.

In selecting water for drinking purposes it is necessary, therefore, in the first instance, to make a careful inquiry as to the possibility of the water having been in contact with refuse animal matter, and all waters open to such suspicion should be rejected.

In the "Dictionary of Applied Chemistry" we read: "It should always be remembered that surface waters may at times receive more or less sewage contamination, and that the offal and animal parasites derived from the cattle grazing on the gathering grounds may also be present."

It is in its capacity as a beverage that water is of most general importance and interest, and more and more attention is annually given to the careful selection of water for this purpose.

Mr. George W. Rafter, member of the American Association of Civil Engineers and ex-city engineer of Rochester, N. Y., in a recent paper before the Microscopical Society of Buffalo stated that "in our country a really safe water supply is the exception; leaving out of account a few cities we may say that there are as yet no sanitarily unobjectionable water supplies in the United States. Probably the best index to the purity of a municipal water is the typhoid fever death rate." For the years 1890-91 the rate for Liverpool, England, was 1.8 per 1,000 of the population. The death

rate from all causes in these years was 27.7 per 1,000 of the population. The death rate in 1847 per 1,000 was 63.5 and has fallen to 26.1 per 1,000 under improvement in the water supply.

There are many striking instances on record of a high mortality from typhoid fever emanating from impure water. In the months of March, April, and May, 1884, Zurich, Switzerland, was visited by a virulent outbreak of the disease, during which time fully two per cent of the population were attacked. Nine per cent of the cases proved fatal, thus giving the high rate of 180 deaths in 100,000 population. A commission appointed to inquire into the cause of this epidemic reported that the filtered river water, although clear and satisfactory in appearance as well as having a fair standard of chemical purity, still contained an abnormal number of bacteria, the contamination being due to serious defects in the filter bed and concrete main leading therefrom to the pumping station.

Dredging operations in or along rivers or lakes, whereby the bottoms are stirred up, will frequently lead to an outbreak of typhoid fever in a community.

A single case of typhoid fever, if the *excreta* be improperly disposed of, is sufficient to contaminate a whole reservoir, lake, or river, and endanger the health and lives of thousands of persons. Strikingly illustrative in this connection is the epidemic which occurred at Plymouth, Pa., in the summer of 1885. The estimated population of the town was 9,000. Of this number 1,104 were attacked with the fever and over ten per cent of the cases proved fatal, there having occurred in all 114 deaths. The epidemic was traced to a single case of typhoid fever, located upon a hillside up the stream which supplied water to the reservoir of the town. The dejections were not properly disposed of and in the spring when the annual thaw came the germs of typhoid fever were carried down the hillside into the stream and then into the reservoir from which the residents received their drinking water.

Water is more apt to be impure in winter

than at other seasons, owing to the deficient oxidation of organic matter due to the presence of ice upon the surface. And after the ice upon which refuse material has accumulated during the winter breaks up in the spring there often occurs a considerable increase in the number of typhoid fever cases in our large towns and cities.

Concerning the effect of freezing upon the quality of water in Lake Zurich bacteriological investigations have revealed the maximum number of germs from November, 1889, to January, 1890, to be 202 per cubic centimeter; from January to March 2,179; from March to April 2,152; from April to May 1,425; in May and June 229. Water of the Potomac at Washington in January, 1888, contained 3,774; in February 2,536; in March 1,210; in April 1,531; in May 1,064; in June 348; in July 255; in August 254; in September 178; in October 75; in November 116; in December 967.

Most cities send their sewage absolutely without treatment to mingle with adjacent waters from which the drinking supply is obtained. In other words the citizens seem content to drink complacently water containing raw sewage.

As indicated above by the bacteriological examination of different supplies water is especially liable to be dangerous in the winter season when covered by ice, which hinders oxidation. And when we consider that many of the northern lakes, like Erie and Ontario, are frozen over for three or four months in each year we may better understand why typhoid is liable to prevail in spring and winter. The *aërobies*, or oxygen-requiring organisms, exert a restraining influence upon the typhoid bacillus in water, but when a body of water is closed by ice this influence is removed.

In 1894 twenty-five of the principal cities of the United States had an average typhoid mortality of 39.6 per hundred thousand of population. Those cities which had the largest mortality from this disease were supplied by a highly suspicious quality of drinking water.

A number of our large cities have become so thoroughly aroused to the imperative

necessity of improving the condition of their water that very extensive plans are being adopted. In Chicago the extraordinary outbreak of typhoid fever from 1889 to 1893 led to the extension of the intake pipes in Lake Michigan to a distance of four miles from the shore, at a cost of \$3,500,000. A recent inquiry by a commission of engineers upon providing a new supply of water for the city of Cincinnati has taken into consideration a scheme for drawing the supply from the Cumberland Mountains, a distance of 130 miles. The estimated cost of this was \$27,000,000. Another scheme considered by the same commission was to take the supply from Lake Erie, 251 miles distant, at an estimated cost of over \$40,000,000. These figures will probably be sufficient to show the impracticability, from a financial standpoint, of abandoning a source of water supply that may be polluted and going a great distance in search of pure water.

Aside from all sentiment and duty, the importance of pure water may be considered from a pecuniary standpoint. All sanitarians agree that the majority of typhoid fever cases come from polluted water, while some eminent authorities claim that the disease is transmitted *only* by this source. A conservative estimate of the value of an average individual to the state is at least \$1,000, so when we consider that about 50,000 persons die annually in the United States from this disease alone a loss of more than \$50,000,000 to the nation is clearly shown. Besides there are about 400,000 cases of this disease each year in our country, which costs the country many million dollars more. Add to this the expense attached to other diseases that are transmitted by impure water and the estimate will be swelled to enormous proportions. Every city and town using contaminated water should consider these facts and hasten to supply its citizens with pure water.

We must all agree that good water and plenty of it is what we want. Why, then, can we not jointly agree on the way to get it?

JAPAN AS AN INDUSTRIAL POWER.

BY WILLIAM ELLIOT GRIFFIS, D.D.

THE summer of 1894 was the time of the revelation of Everlasting Great Japan to the world as a military power. The little army of boy-like men, contemptuously styled by the Chinese emperor "pygmies," marched through Korea and Manchuria, consuming the Chinese armies before them as a prairie fire the dry grass. The squadrons of steel-skinned cruisers and light warships annihilated the Chinese fleet, capturing heavy battle ships and opening and entering some of the strongest fortresses in the world. Equally good warriors during the dog-days or with the mercury below zero, the fighting and the staying powers of the Japanese surprised the world. Henceforth Japan not only had potency but was a power.

Yet in reality the truth was veiled. Japan's ambition is not martial. Her lust is not for conflict. Her real ambition lies where her problems confront her—at home. For years to come her military desires will be gratified and her resources sufficiently taxed, first to carry out her ambitious naval program and second to make Formosa thoroughly Japanese. Her sober ideal is to stand as the equal in civilization of any nation in the world, and to control the markets of the East. Her dream is even to become an equal competitor with Europe and the United States for the world's trade and traffic on land and sea.

Verily this is the realization for Japan of her old proverb-prophecy, "*Ichī no naka no insha*" (The hermit in the middle of the market place), coined centuries ago! It is not the only one of her ancient proverbs which this "Princess Country" now uses for a hand-mirror in which to see her fair face. Japan was once shut off from all the world, living, as it were, below its surface. Now "the frog in the well knows the great ocean." To show the mighty change between the year 1870 and *anno Domini*

1896 let me contrast what I saw then with what I behold now.

Until 1871 the country was divided into nearly three hundred petty principalities, with a foreign commerce so small that English merchants declared that "Japan was hardly worth trading with." Owing to causes which we cannot here explain in detail population had stood stationary, or nearly so, for about a century previous. What few foreign things were imported sold rather as curiosities or playthings. The weaving of cotton goods was a domestic industry, almost entirely in the hands of women. After very rude treatment in ginning or cleaning, the raw cotton was made into rough yarn and woven on hand looms. The pieces of muslin were not usually more than thirty or forty feet long and were only a little over a foot wide. In weaving silk and the finer fibers larger widths were secured.

All the iron work in the country was done by the ordinary blacksmith. He sat at his work, using an anvil about the size of a brick and working his bellows with his right foot and toe. In almost every line of industry the people squatted or sat down to their work. In taste and skill the Japanese artisan was not to be despised, and the products of his brain and hand were admired wherever seen throughout the world. Yet speaking generally there was little or no concentrated capital. There were no great factories and no organized industry on a large scale. Indeed, although guilds and local combinations of nearly every sort of craftsmen or servants existed, yet the conditions of industry corresponded with the political situation. Everything was divided, local, non-progressive. To the American accustomed to grander ideas and organizations everything in Japan, even its manufactures, seemed on a baby-house scale.

Yet I must confess, even at the risk of being charged with egotism, that I saw clearly even then some indications of that great change which has come over the nation—the change which to-day alarms Manchester, scares the German manufacturers, and makes the Emperor William draw pictures of a “yellow specter” that glares at Christendom, threatening to overwhelm our civilization. I saw the Japanese hand preordained to do fine work and a good deal of it. When living in Fukui I was continually asked by eager students, townsmen, and even country folk, how to make this or that—wine, beer, barometers, matches—how to raise celery, how to torpedo a man of war, how to use dynamite and fire it by electricity in mining, how to make sewing machines, etc. I remember seeing an ordinary blacksmith imitate exactly and reproduce, except as to lettering and fancy streaking with paint, some of our best agricultural machinery. I heard of a Japanese machinist who saw a sewing machine for the first time in his life. After learning to work it he determined to make one like it. First he pasted bits of paper, all regularly numbered, on each of the different pieces of the machine, even to the screws. Next he took it apart. Then he put it together again, seeing that it worked properly. After this he sat down with his toe-power bellows, his little forge fire, his brick-shaped anvil, and his own files, hammers, and cutters, and finally made, polished, and put together the various duplicates. He assembled what he had cast, forged, filed, or cut into a splendid unity. Everything from treadle to needle was exactly like the American original, except the engraved writing and the punched numbers.

Yet another thing I noticed and learned thoroughly during my four years' close experience with the Japanese. They are far from being mere imitators. They can copy, but they do more. They select, adapt, improve, and, to a remarkable degree, they invent. Their selective and assimilative power amounts to genius. Note how they have sent their men and wares to

the World's Expositions in Europe and America since 1867. At first they brought only their local standard products. Now behold them home from Chicago, where, with things both new and old, they took medals by the score for improvements on things foreign, new products, and original inventions.

Space does not allow us to tell the story of their triumphs. I select but one thing typical of their ability to borrow, adapt, and assimilate. In the late war with China it mightily surprised German, British, and French army officers who had been in China that the Chinese were armed with heavier and stronger guns and yet, somehow, heaven was *not* on the side of either the heavier guns, ships, or battalions. The mikado's troops won with the Murata rifle, invented by Colonel Murata, a Japanese. This little gun is made especially for the little men of Japan, with their taper, lady-like fingers. It is light enough for a boy to carry without getting tired. The whole breech-movement reminds one of a delicate sewing machine. Now in the hands of a muscular and thick-boned English soldier this fine machinery would, quickly go to smash, but for the Japanese it was exactly the thing. The Murata rifle compelled the world's applause.

I noticed also the selective power of the Japanese. They modeled their navy on that of England, their army on that of France first and then that of Germany; their schools and internal revenue system on American models. They went to Holland for their hydrographic engineers and dike-builders, and to Italy for men to improve their silk crop and filature. Moreover, after hiring foreigners and exhausting the benefit of their service, they tried their own hands at the various kinds of skill and industry. Often they burnt their fingers and wasted their money; but they persevered and have won success.

Nor did I forget how largely our own country had given the Japanese their cue and example. On the beach at Yokohama, in 1854, Commodore Matthew C. Perry had laid down the ties and rails and given the

Japanese an object lesson with a real locomotive and train of cars. He had put in the stakes and stretched the wires and showed the Japanese how to talk at a distance through earth and iron. He had then and there showed them what Europe and America had accomplished in art and invention, in thought and in books, in labor-saving apparatus, and in the conquest of nature. By this exhibition he had shown them Christendom in the nineteenth century in microcosm. That the Japanese were not slow to learn the lesson was quickly seen in their new guns and ships made and used by the tycoon's government at Yeddo.

Yet no serious progress could be made, much less a revolution be effected in Japanese industry, while the country had two centers of authority and was comminuted by feudalism. When, however, what must be called the revolution (though the Japanese like to say the restoration) of 1868 had been accomplished, giving unity of power to the mikado, feudalism soon fell with a crash. Instead of fourteen score feudal fiefs there was one nation, one country, one ruler.

Then followed a decade of educational activity in which the national forces were consolidated and the old feudal communisms gave way to individualism. Unity in government meant liberty to the person and vast variety in enterprise. What had formerly been only the property of nobles and a privileged few became the heritage of all. Laws, courts, army and navy, schools, religious freedom, the right to spend money at will, to change one's place of abode or occupation, in a word, the old paths and places of monopoly were open to all. Men were no longer fettered in hereditary lines to a single industry, achievement, or aspiration. The new combinations and unities were those of men, with differing talents, from various places of origin, associating themselves for the purpose of imitating foreign merchants and manufacturers and of winning all the prizes obtainable on land and sea.

It is only along one or two avenues of Japanese development that we can glance

in this paper. In water-traffic and control, both of their coast line and foreign commerce, the progress has been marvelous. Soon learning to build their own ships, they have now, instead of nothing foreign, nearly eight hundred sailing vessels and seven hundred steamers built in "western style."

Already there is regular steamboat communication with Siberia, Korea, China, and their own chief ports. They have begun a line to England—their first steamer having already actually arrived in Liverpool—and arrangements for a monthly trans-Pacific service between Tacoma and Tokyo has been consummated. Their twenty-five hundred miles of railway and twelve thousand miles of telegraph wire are mighty aids to transportation and facilitation of business.

The volume of foreign commerce has been pretty steadily rising since the country was first opened. In 1894 it rose to the astonishing point of \$230,728,035. The figures, it is true, are in silver *yen*, the *yen* being worth but little more than half a dollar according to our gold standard; yet the great excess of the imports in 1894 as compared with 1893 shows the rapid development of Japan's purchasing power. There is no reasonable ground for supposing otherwise than that Japan's foreign commerce will steadily increase. In 1894 her exports as compared with imports were in value according to the proportion of 117 to 98.

In no line of industry has the revolution been more remarkable than in textiles. The opening of Japan to the world corresponded in time to the highest development in the West of mechanical principles and motive power. The thousands of bright young men from the once hermit country who visited our factories discerned at once their opportunity. A cotton-spinning machine seemed to them almost human. Realizing their own tremendous resources in the form of cheap labor, they saw that if a union were effected between that and the new wonders of the West they could, because of their very nearness to the largest cotton plantations of the world, begin at once to drive out British imports. They were somewhat tired of paying for high-priced cotton goods made in Man-

chester. The costly British freight and packing would be saved, and the abominable adulteration by means of "sizing" would be avoided.

So about 1880 the experiment of substituting steam for human muscle was tried. In 1882 they had only 1,500 spindles running, including those controlled by the government, and the total production of the cotton yarn for the year was but 70,000 pounds. Within one decade the product increased to over 80,000,000 pounds. English goods were driven from the market of Japan!

Then the Japanese began to look abroad and dream of capturing the markets of Asia. In 1894 they had forty mills, operating twenty-two hours out of the twenty-four daily during 292 days of the year and turning out 122,000,000 pounds of yarn. With their hereditary taste and skill the cotton yarn has been made up into fabrics as delicate, beautiful, and enduring as one could wish for the wonderfully low prices at which they are sold. They are in general free from the sizing for which English goods have a bad reputation. They have won their way in Korea, in China, in Siam, and even in India and Australia. As for the silk fabrics, they are already being offered in America and Europe at prices that surprise and alarm manufacturers and merchants.

This wonderful development in the textile industry has actually made the United States, once the largest buyer and the smallest seller in Japan, the chief trader with this new industrial power in the Orient. Whereas the United States used formerly to import only a little kerosene, flour, and machinery, our people sold to Japan during the first six months of 1895 over 100,000,000 pounds of raw cotton. The sale of American iron is also steadily increasing.

Japan is also developing rapidly along the line of machinery and all kinds of iron and steel work. She builds her own ships and requires plates for her war vessels and engines for her trade steamers. Her railways, telegraphs, factories, and earthquake-proof houses need our pig iron and metals. It is one object of her new line of steamers to our Pacific coast to get our raw materials

cheaper. It will be some time yet before Japan is able to compete with Europe or the United States in the markets of Asia in selling manufactured iron or steel, yet the day is not very far off. Her vast resources of cheap labor will soon enable her to supply her own people with matches, ceramic wares, all kinds of "notions," and the various knick-nacks desired by our millions of people, and her goods will have a finish and artistic quality not generally found in the cheaper European wares. Most of the cheap native wares now sold in America are made by prisoners. In Japan a love of art, taste, and power of artistic production have penetrated even to the lowest classes.

One illustration of the capacity of the Japanese to adapt themselves to new conditions is seen in the city of Fukui, in which I lived during my first year in Japan, while organizing schools under the American principle. In my time, 1870-1874, the whole province of Echizen was indeed noted for its tea, rice, and paper, but not beyond the fame of an ordinary province in Japan. I seemed to be living in the Middle Ages, where life went drowsily on and nobody was in a hurry. The grand old feudal castle lifted its towers toward the sky and on its peaks stood bronze dolphins, but no tall chimney challenged it at equal altitude. The gentry lived in one part of the town, the tradespeople in another, and the farmers out in the villages. Though the province had one of the best seaports on the west coast, the trade was slight and the exports were few. As for local industry, it sufficed merely for local needs.

Now, behold the change! Fukui is now famous for its *habutai*, or white silk, which in 1880 was in value next to nothing. In 1895 the production of this one city and neighborhood amounted to \$6,000,000. A consignment of Fukui silks offered in London at a shilling a yard fairly dazes the English manufacturers. In his superb octavo entitled "The Industries of Japan" (1889) Professor Rein not only assured the silk manufacturers of Crefeld, in Germany (whence with William Penn the silk spinners in 1682 settled Germantown, Pa.),

that there was no danger of Japanese competition, but he even failed to mention the manufacturers of Fukui. Yet what has been done in Fukui may serve as but a single example out of a score of cities that have become centers of manufactures.

Yet this sudden industrial transition of an agricultural people is not without internal dangers. Japan has nearly doubled her population within the present half century, and almost since 1870. In the provinces of Musasi (in which Tokyo is situated), Owari (in which is Nagoya), Yamashiro (in which is Kyoto), and Setzu (in which is Osaka), and in three other provinces, all on the sea coast, the population is over one thousand to the square mile. In ten of the provinces it is over five hundred to the square mile. Already a strong current of agricultural people from the interior has set toward the large cities to increase this congestion of population. Already Osaka, once with nothing in it higher than the temple gables or the castle towers, is now palisaded round with the lofty chimneys of cotton factories. In other parts of the empire the hideous accompaniment of modern manufactures, smoke, dust, cinders, slag, and refuse, are poisoning the streams, befouling the air, and destroying the landscape. Soon we shall have a "black country," as in England.

Worse evils are multiplied. With the tremendous increase of production there is as yet no sign of improvement in wages of operators. The mills run night and day. Ten per cent of the male cotton spinners and twenty-three per cent of the female spinners are children under fifteen years, with an average of eleven working hours a day. A spinner who works in daytime this week must work at night next week, without any increase of pay. In Osaka lately out of one hundred applications for enlistment in the army ninety-four were rejected on account of physical disabilities! A spinner dishonorably discharged from the mills cannot be employed by others within one year. The spinners are under police supervision and cannot easily combine to right their wrongs. Already the alarm is being

raised by sober thinkers about dangers ahead, but thus far employers have been able to prevent legislation for the improvement of operators. Furthermore the Japanese seem to be neglecting their home market for gain abroad.

The dangers of this kind of peace are perhaps greater than those of war. Japan has already suffered from strikes. The first beginnings of labor organization on a large scale, among shoemakers and bricklayers, may be discerned. In spite of despotic government these unions will increase. Laborers skilled and unskilled will discover their power. Wages will rise. The false philosophy now so popular among the public leaders of Japan will be exploded. Let us hope this will take place before anarchy or destructive socialism compels a change by violence.

The current Japanese argument for extending foreign commerce is based upon the cheapness of labor and its supposed freedom from liability to change, but such a silly notion must give way. Japan is not the hermit land of old, isolated from the shock of change, but is a new nation, everywhere permeated with the leaven of modern ideas and of Christianity. The laboring man in Japan, no more than in the West, will remain blind or dumb. With thought and ethical improvement will come a social elevation that will alter the present state of things, reduce the volume of cheap labor, and weaken if not shatter the foundation principles of the present industrial structure in Japan. The result of this will be to postpone, if not dissolve into thin air, the present menace to the manufactures of Christendom.

Nevertheless it is as plain to him who can read or write as the sun in the heavens that for the remainder of this century at least Japanese industrial competition with the West is not a "myth," but a reality. It is certain that German, English, French, and American manufactures will during the next half or whole decade receive considerable modification because of the sudden rise of Japan as an industrial power.

THE RIPENIN', PURPLE, MELLOW HUSH AND PURTINESS OF FALL.

BY ELLA M. BOULT.

YOU may talk about the beauty of the springtime and the summer,
Of burstin' buds and bloomin' flowers, of singin' birds and sech;
Of the sap a creepin' up'ards and the leaves a gettin' greener
And the rest of natur's fixin's that the spring and summer fetch.
I'll 'low that springtime's purty, all a sproutin' and a buddin'
Arter winter's spell is broke; I'll 'low it is a likely sight:
I can hear as well as t'other all the v'ices that are speakin',
And I've watched old Mother Natur' workin' day as well as night.
But it ain't the sight to look on that you'll see a few months later,
When the buddin's past and flōwers have blowed and quail begin to call;
When the pesky golden-rod has set her yellor lamps a flamin'
And the asters, blowin' purple, tell you that it's comin' fall;
When the garden stuff is gathered and the plowin's turned the earth up,
So's to throw a sort of smell of next year's growin' on the air,
And the barn is filled to burstin' out with hay as sweet as honey,
And there's purtiness and sweetness lurkin' round you everywhere;
When the wheat's been shocked and gathered and the sun's lit up the stubble
Till it shines like sticks of gold a glitt'rin' there before your eyes,
With the birds a shyin' round to pick the droppin's of the harvest,
And the thistles over yonder swarmin' thick with butterflies;
When the threshin's nigh 'bout over, and the corn begins to rustle,
And its yellor ears are shovin' back their husks and grinnin' out
At the punkins rolled agin it, blazin' out the summer's sunshine
They've been drinkin' ever sence their first green shoots begun to sprout;
When the very creeturs down beside the meadow brook are lollin',
Knowin' spring and summer's over and the restin' spell has come,
When the air is full of stillness, and the flowers are all a noddin',
And the drowsiness is singin' with the bees' and insects' hum;
When the buddin' and the blowin' in the orchard's turned to somethin'
Mebbe not jest so poetic, but a satisfyin' sight:
Fruit a ripenin' and bein'-finished off by days of sunshine,
And a soakin' in the dew and growin' mellerer by night.
When the sun itsel's got lazy and gets up a leetle later,
Blearin' through the mist a growin' deeper every day,
Lightin' up the yellorin' beeches and the maples just a turnin',
With the oaks all green and glowin' sheddin' off each burnin' ray.
There's a sight to make you fairly groan for very joy of seein'
Every blessed thing in natur's touched the topmost it can do;
There's the purtiness of spring an' summer packed in tight together
With the hazy, ripenin' spell of autumn wrapped around it too.
You may talk about the beauties of the seasons all you want to,
And I will allow there's somethin' mighty sightly 'bout 'em all;
But there's nothin' on this earth so jest exactly satisfyin'
As the ripenin', purple, mellow hush and purtiness of fall.

WOMAN'S COUNCIL TABLE.

THE DANGERS IN YOUR HOUSE.

BY THE FAMILY DOCTOR.

IN the good old colonial times of rabbit's-foot customs and delightful superstitions a new building was not expected to bring its tenants good luck till it had undergone the baptism of fire known as "house-warming," and the architect generally contrived to finish his work by the end of October, so as to make the next blizzard a good excuse for a rousing initiation of the chimney-flues.

But if November is a lucky season for warming a new house it is a still better time for frost-cleaning an old one. Frost is an atmospheric purge-all, death to microbes, and warranted to "clean out everything except linen," as the advertisers of a patent scouring mixture express it. One frosty night will do more to expurgate the old sardine cans in the back yard than a ton of disinfecting powders; it stops fevers and epidemics all over the swamp lands of the malaria regions, and its general application to domestic hygiene would save bundles of drug store bills.

Don't be afraid to give the remedy a fair trial. During the first hard frost that silvers the fallen leaves around an old dwelling house—especially a building that has been occupied before but stood vacant with every door locked for months together—open all the windows and leave them wide open for at least six hours, even all night if there is no risk of midnight surprise parties.

Repeat the experiment if the cold weather continues—dry blizzards preferred—and then take notice how the musty odor about the downstairs rooms has departed forever, how much easier and quicker the lungs perform their work. The chimney corners are no longer haunted by the dread of sick-headaches. The insomnia goblins have been sent about their business.

The rattling of a rheumatic window-

shutter may wake you before morning, but the whispering and moaning of the night wind has ceased to bode evil; you may lie awake and listen to its voice like Lady Montague to the oracular breakers of the Ægean Sea. "I could never get rid of the idea," she writes, "that those hoarse waves wanted to reveal a secret—some deep-buried truth that might yet be resurrected before its loss has caused irremediable mischief."

The November winds, too, have a message of that sort; they are trying to reveal a long-forgotten or never clearly recognized truth—the cause of lung troubles, perhaps, the secret of the consumption sphinx that devours more human victims than war, famine, and alcohol put together. "Don't mistake me for an enemy," whispers the night wind. "You know that I have swept disease from my path and brought peace to the pillows of many thousands of fever patients; but have you never suspected a far more important truth—the fact that lung complaints have nothing in the world to do with frost, but are exclusively due to the breathing of impure air—warm, stagnant, and impure air—and yield to the influence of cold, pure air more quickly than to anything your nostrum-mongers can compound? Will you not prefer salvation to preposterous prejudices?"

The word *cold* seems to forbid. Can it be possible that "colds" in the head, "colds" and coughs, and chronic "colds" are all cured rather than caused by cold air?

But on second thought you do remember that catarrhs are more prevalent in fall and spring than in midwinter and that consumption is a house disease, sparing hunters, trappers, and soldiers in frosty bivouacs, but attacking the dwellers in well-warmed

tenements. You also recollect the strange success of the mountain-cure for otherwise incurable lung complaints, and the abundantly-confirmed fact that catarrh and consumption are unknown among the natives of the arctic regions.

"How in the name of all wonders can Eskimos and Greenlanders escape catarrh at a time of the year when mercury freezes and the alcohol thermometer falls to sixty-five degrees below zero?"

"It must be their diet," replied a medical wiseacre whose mind could not rise to a conjecture of the fact that our fur-clad fellow-men enjoy immunity from colds because of the intense (microbe destroying) frosts of their climate; "it must be their diet, their menu of blubber and train oil; let's embrace their example—guzzle fish oil by the bottle—and we may be well off yet."

They might as well have crawled into a Kansas dugout and stopped the entrance with bundles of walrus skins. A New England doctor ascribes catarrh to habitual overeating, and from that point of view the fish-oil prescription might have answered its purpose since it took away the appetite of its victims; but whenever artificial warmth coöperated with a microbe-reviving thaw the lung troubles recommenced, and a Swiss climate doctor came much nearer the truth when he removed his sanitarium from the lake region to the cold highlands of Zermatt.

A still better guess was that of the tent-cure physician, a successor of Dio Lewis, who established canvas hospitals in the upper Adirondacks and cured consumptives with a novel application of Florence Nightingale's advice to let fresh air pervade every nook and cranny of a field lazaretto. Fresh air does penetrate canvas more easily than brick walls, and the prophets of the Adirondacks stuck to their tents, like Lamb's ancient Briton to the plan of burning pigsties after he had once noticed its effect in improving the flavor of swine's flesh. The Briton burned up shiploads of planks before the abstract gospel of roast pork finally dawned on his mind, and consumptives will long continue to perform the prescribed pil-

grimage to distant highland regions in order to breathe the cold air they might have breathed, free of cost, in their own bedrooms.

The mountain cure, indeed, owes its popularity partly to what old-school physicians called a *placebo* trick—a closed tent (no matter how penetrable to the breath of the winter wind) being less shocking to the prejudiced mind than an open window.

At an altitude of four thousand feet the cost of a winter camp must be considerable and rise with the latitude, but the patients recover, especially if they stay to get the benefit of the last night-frost; *i. e.* to about the middle of April.

An earlier return to the lowlands may spoil all. For the most stubborn defender of the old "cold" theory cannot deny the suspicious circumstance that the inhabitants of the temperate zone are visited by two annual catarrh epidemics: one at the beginning of March, the other about the middle of November. The explanation can be found in the fact that warm, stagnant, and impure air is an infallible triple elixir for the development of lung microbes. Warm air alone is harmless; impure but frosty air about equally so; stagnant warm air cannot be breathed with continued impunity, but the coincidence of the three conditions becomes as dangerous as Friar Bacon's man-destroying compound of charcoal, sulphur, and saltpetre—the resisting power of the lungs gives way and catarrh microbes multiply like fanatics in a Hindoo revival camp.

Hence the prevalence of catarrhs at the two seasons named. All-pervading frosts have expurgated the indoor atmosphere, in spite of closed windows and stove fires, or the redeeming influence of each cold night has atoned for the sanitary mischief of each day.

But then comes a thaw; the outdoor thermometer rises to 60° Fahrenheit before the parlor stoves and schoolroom stoves have ceased to glow; the windows are still hermetically closed, and the catarrh germs feel that their chance has come. "Joy, shipmate, joy!" the microbes call to each other, like the spirits of Walt Whitman's soul, and

the work of pulmonary devastation begins without a moment's loss of time. The prosperous colonists send out pioneers; the atmosphere becomes saturated with the seeds of catarrh contagion and its effect on a crowded schoolroom often resembles the transfigurations in Dante's picnic grounds. In less than twenty-four hours a hundred bright-eyed children may begin to snuffle and stagger about with aching joints and swollen faces. *La grippe* is nothing but an international catarrh.

In autumn the week after the breaking up of the first hard frosts generally witnesses an epidemic of such afflictions; warm weather has returned after the double windows have already been closed (too often nailed down) and the microbes join in the Thanksgiving hallelujahs. But the miracle of the Indian summer cannot last forever, and to all city-dwellers who have eyes to see and ears to hear the plainest hints of nature the cool November wind could be made to bring all the relief it has brought to the sufferers of the chill-and-ague regions.

Let the Amalekites worship the Goddess of Health on mountain tops and save expenses and your life together by establishing a home-made refrigeration camp. Cover your catarrh patients as warm as they like—six quilts if three are not enough—but turn their faces to the open window, and rely upon it that they can breathe air of any temperature on the mild side of zero not only with absolute impunity but with beneficial results unattainable by drug methods.

From sunset to 6 a. m. also ventilate your parlors and dining rooms; at dawn close the windows, stir the fires till the thermometer in the center of the room has risen to seventy degrees; then sprinkle a hot shovel with a pinch of incense or fumigating powder (another inexpensive lung balm) and ring the breakfast bell.

Your neighbors may stare, or try to stare, at your proceedings, but while their eyes are almost blind with catarrh your family will enjoy the light of a sanitary Goshen, and recover completely about a week before the end of the surrounding lung epidemic.

AMERICAN WEDDINGS.

BY MARY HARDING INGRAM.

FROM the most ancient times it has been thought not only proper but necessary that weddings should be treated as occasions of social importance and of high rejoicing. Birth, marriage, and death are the three monumental salients of our existence; the beginning, the culmination, the close. But marriage is the one flawless badge of happiness, else it is not really marriage, and its formal celebration should be a scene of unalloyed delight.

In America we regard matrimony with a wholesome feeling, generally speaking, notwithstanding our lax and irregular divorce laws, and our weddings in all classes of society are solemnized with more or less respect for long-settled usages. Of course there is a vast difference between an ultra fashionable wedding and one in the poorest

class of society; but the difference is more of show than of substance. For the core of the wedding, high or low, is in the happy publication of the contract according to law and the custom prevailing.

Among intelligent people who are able to conform to the higher social rules weddings are of two kinds, so far as place and manner are concerned—the home wedding and the church wedding. If the bride's parents have a suitable house a home wedding is to be preferred. There is something delightfully memorable in the sweet occasion when the marriage takes place under the family roof-tree, amid the hallowed objects of dearest affection. Marriage is the legitimate founding of a family, and may be most beautifully and appropriately confirmed in the sacred home circle, at the altar of home

love. The church is, however, a most appropriate and solemnly effective place for the wedding.

Viewed simply as a ceremonial display the marriage occasion demands strict observance of the formalities obtaining in the social circle to which the contracting parties belong. This is not a legal requirement, but it is indissolubly binding, and no greater mistake can be made than to ignore it in any essential particular. Whatever excuse there may be for inattention to strict formalities at any other time, none whatever is valid when a public solemnization of marriage is in question, whether in the church or in the home. To slacken the rigid and solemn conventionalities of the wedding is to cheapen matrimony and encourage divorce.

American weddings, while governed by no absolutely fixed rules, are conducted in accordance with a general plan formulated, it would seem, upon various modifications of European customs. By almost universal consent, among the better classes of people, ministers of the Gospel are preferably given the office of performing the marriage ceremony, although it is a function of various purely legal officers. Indeed it is not looked upon as in strictly good form, in most social circles, to have a civil functionary conduct the wedding. Of course the marriage is just as binding, but custom has fixed and popular conscience has approved the recognition of the sweet and beautiful doctrine that true marriage is made in heaven and should be sealed by the man of God.

Every wedding is most largely controlled in its important details by the bride's family. The question of expense immediately arises. This should be in accordance with the means and the taste of those who must assume the responsibility. And while the rule that overdisplay is vulgar holds good here as elsewhere, a liberal use of decorations and a lavish generosity of expenditure for the sake of a beautiful effect throughout the ceremony and its accompaniments are always expected. Here is where good common sense and the deepest respect for

youthful imagination and tender sentiment must blend to perfection. Neither parsimony nor reckless extravagance must rule. The happy limit of honest generosity must be aimed at. What the bride's family are easily able to do should be done, always keeping in view the exacting quality of good taste. The main object is to make the occasion one of pure and unbroken pleasure for all present, a scene of rational and charming festivity, and at the same time a solemn and sweetly impressive formal ceremony bearing the moral weight of an indissoluble and holy contract.

Weddings are actually, in view of the law, public contracts that must be recorded; but social custom has generally shut them from the sight of all save invited guests. The commonly prevailing method of invitation is by means of engraved cards issued by the bride's parents, or guardian, or near relative, as circumstances may require. The wording of these cards is somewhat as follows:

*Mr. & Mrs. Simon Sanders
request the honour of your presence at the
marriage of their daughter,
Anne Elizabeth,*

to

*Mr. Nathan Charles Normansby,
on Wednesday evening, September the sixteenth,
at eight o'clock.*

*1001 Darkington Street,
Pineville, South Carolina.*

For a church wedding the name of the church should appear in place of the street address.

Custom has decreed that the English spelling of *honor*, with the *u*, shall be followed, that dates shall be written out in full, and that there shall be no abbreviation of any word. The card is a sheet of elegant white note paper folded in the middle and placed in a square envelope, which is inclosed in another envelope slightly larger. Upon this latter is written the name and address of the guest to which it is to be sent. Some prefer the phrase "desire your presence," or "request the pleasure of your presence," instead of "request the honour," but the last phrasing is that used by people who best understand genuine propriety of usage. It

gives a stately touch and a courtly dignity to the invitation.

There has recently been seen in our newspapers the evidence of a growing desire on the part of brides and their parents to make a vulgar display in print by giving to the public a minute and exhaustive description of the bride's *trousseau*, her wedding presents, the amount of money given her by her father, the number and size of her traveling trunks and bags, the cost of her diamonds, etc. Nothing could possibly be in worse taste. Of course whatever reporters for the press can find out will be printed; but when we see every article of a bride's wardrobe and toilet so minutely described that not a frill or a tuck is overlooked and not a hairpin is left out we well know that the reporter has been very ably assisted in making the attractive schedule.

It is a species of personal advertisement quite often accompanied by a picture of

the bride and a fulsome enumeration of her points of beauty. Nothing more desirable than cheap notoriety can possibly be gained by this sort of publicity. The custom should not be for a moment favored by people who wish to show good taste and gentle breeding.

The great majority of American weddings necessarily take place under the restrictions of a limited income, and the application to them of rules laid down for the marriage of millionaires is neither possible nor desirable; but the intelligent mind will readily grasp the true essentials and apply the pattern with all due allowance. Dignity without stiffness, pleasure without hilarity, a regard for becoming decoration, and a firm impression of the sacred nature of the marriage contract are the chief points to be emphasized. It used to be thought, and it is still pleasant to believe it, that a happy wedding promises a happy married life.

PROGRESSIVE HOUSEKEEPING.

BY JANE KINGSFORD.

I.

HOUSEKEEPERS are commonly creatures of tradition. We are apt to think it more important to "do as mother did" than to stop and consider whether there be not a better way. Filial regard and the home training given to girls combine to make women conservative and timid about trying anything new in the household. Mother used a wooden table in the kitchen on which meat, fruit, and vegetables were prepared for cooking and on which dough was made for bread and pastry. The soft wood absorbed fat and juices and only constant scrubbing prevented the table from swarming with bacteria. Poor mother! She never heard of bacteria, but she knew that the table had to be scrubbed. It makes my heart ache to think of the unnecessary labor that was done in mother's kitchen. A slate-top table for vegetables and a marble-top table for mixing dough would save scrubbing. Stone and marble

can be sterilized quickly with hot water and wiped dry and be chemically clean with little labor. Mother used an iron spoon. A wooden spoon is better, because quiet and peace are something even in the kitchen.

If we could be a little more open-minded about domestic matters housekeeping would be easier and home life happier. We make too much of housekeeping. Life is altogether too valuable to surrender it all to the mere creature wants. The progressive housekeeper will not sacrifice the health or comfort of her family, but she will save time, labor, temper, and nerves by keeping her mind open to the things science is continually placing in her hands.

A weary house-mother standing over her cook stove in Brooklyn during the "hot spell" last August exclaimed in despair, "I must have a gas stove. I hate to change, but I can't stand this heat." That's just the position of many women. We are afraid to be progressive. We fear the new and

"hate to change." We think the gas expensive and fear the food will "smell of gas." The real fact is, every wood, oil, or coal stove is a crude, wasteful appliance for making gas. We do not burn coal, but the gas that is in it. The cost is purely relative. If we have to boil a barrel of water coal might be cheaper. If we wish to boil a pint of water for the morning coffee gas would be cheaper. A coal fire costs paper to light the wood and wood to light the coal and time and labor to put on the fuel and remove the ashes. Why should an immortal spirit stand in the kitchen "waiting for the fire to burn" when there is a good book on the parlor table.

I have been looking about among the new apartment houses in New York and I find the architects believe that some of us are progressive housekeepers. I find hot water is delivered free into every kitchen, day and night, because it is cheaper to maintain one fire in the cellar than forty fires in forty kitchens. Hot water being provided, every kitchen has a gas range to avoid the carrying of coal up and the ashes down. In the parlors and other rooms there is in the fireplace a neat veil or screen of white asbestos. A match gives a great sheet of glowing white fire, warming and ventilating the room perfectly. An asbestos glow-fire may not be as poetical as the old hickory log mother had, but the house-mother has more time to keep up her reading.

The progressive housekeeper goes a step farther. Under the electric lamp in the children's nursery is a little marble shelf. On the shelf stands a flat disk of iron with a twisted wire from the electric light. By turning the button on the lamp the disk soon becomes hot and a little kettle placed upon it soon gives hot water for use in sickness or to warm baby's milk or warm a cup of bouillon for the invalid. It is a tiny electric stove without fire, light, or smoke. It is literally black heat.

If we investigate the matter a little further we find the coffee urn, the chafing-dish, the flat-iron each provided with an electric heater and the same current that lights the room may boil the eggs, toast the bread, and

cook the griddle cakes, and all without lighting a match or seeing a flame. In the invalid's room the electric current from an ordinary electric lamp may warm the bed or pillow and do all the work of a hot-water bag without its uncertainty and inconvenience. Of course this is the most costly cooking we can have. It would be extravagant to use electricity to cook for a large family. It might be the highest economy in a sick room, where precision, neatness, and time are worth more than a high-price heat.

Not long ago I called on friends and found the family at lunch. I hesitated about staying, but my friend insisted that I stay, saying, "The cook is away but that makes no difference." I entered the elegant dining room and found the table spread for a hot lunch. Judge of my surprise when my hostess opened a door in a beautiful cabinet and exhibited a tiny gas kitchen sunk in the wall. The little closet was lined with zinc and was fitted with a little gas stove and supplied with shelves and hooks for the cooking utensils. A hole in the wall served for a chimney to carry off the heat and odor of cooking and here my progressive housekeeper could get up a hot lunch even if the cook was away.

After lunch I was shown another bit of progressive housekeeping. The flat roof of the house was covered with brick and surrounded by a wire netting. In one portion of the roof was an iron arbor with glass sides for a shelter from the rain, and here, high above the street, safe from harm, the progressive young people had a beautiful out-of-door playground. The house-mother could send them all up there and know they were happy and safe while she was free for other things.

Progressive housekeeping means a willingness to accept new ideas, a willingness to do old things in new ways. It is not confined to the kitchen or pantry. Further investigation shows many new fields in which the housekeeper may save time, labor, money, and nerves if she be only willing to try something new. "Mother's way" was very good—for mother. There are better ways now.

THE HUMAN VOICE.

BY DR. OTTO SCHWIDOP.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE GERMAN "UEBER LAND UND MEER."

THE first thing to be considered in voice culture is the hearing. It is the chief factor in producing the various tones of which the human voice is capable. Upon its soundness directly depends the range of tones imitated by the individual; for one naturally imitates only those tones distinguished by him through his hearing. Yet this faculty receives far too little care from people in general. They seem not to realize the seriousness of ear troubles and consequently pay the penalty of neglect or often of treatment unsuitable to the case. In a high percentage of deaf mutes the deafness was found to have originated in neglected or badly treated ear diseases.

In order to produce a tone certain groups of muscles must be brought into action, such as the tongue, lips, larynx, pectoral muscles, etc. If our language consisted only of vowels the formation of individual tones would be much easier. It is a well-known fact that children with a musical ear learn the tones, even learn to sing whole melodies in vowels before they are able to talk. But the language consists of both vowels and consonants, and a child who in trying to talk does not first undertake single tones hits upon the formation of tones in a very arbitrary and commonly very incorrect manner. Hence it will be seen that voice culture should begin with instruction in the formation of tones, and that very early in life. A good time is when children first enter school, usually at the age of six years; for then they are required to develop the national tongue in place of the so-called baby talk which they have used up to this time.

But in the ordinary method of voice culture singing is taken up immediately and the cultivation of speech, if not entirely omitted, as is often the case, receives

almost no attention until the end of the singing lessons, when it is added to finish off. How can singers taught by this method acquire a pronunciation free from dialect, so that the effect of the song shall not be spoiled? How shall they acquire a pure vocalization in singing if each one of them learns to sing with his own habitual faults of utterance and scarcely takes pains to correct his enunciation? Just observe the dialogue in an opera!

It is lamentable that no heed is paid in schools to the errors once acquired by children in producing a tone or to the means of correcting them. The faulty speaking and singing are continued and the demands on the little voices are increased. The singing of all the children together in the schools is a great detriment to their voices. Besides the urging they receive there is the natural instinct of imitation or of ambition not to fall behind the better singers that prompts them to adjust their voices to reach the high notes written before them. In the attempt they shriek, and since the highness of the voice depends on the tension of the vocal chords and the power of the air inhaled the voices are strained and their power of endurance is impaired.

The mistake is not less grievous with professional singers. As if all the evils which the voice already has suffered through false pretensions of remedying it were not enough, it now is threatened with a much greater mischief. We will not enter into the facts that every singer wishes to be a heroic tenor, that only few song instructors are able to teach the proper method of improving the voice, and, finally, that an endless number are trained to be singers who have little natural talent. The greatest harm results from the fact that in most cases the voice of the pupil is mistakenly

estimated and is forced into a part which causes it to be seriously strained. It undergoes the same misfortune it suffered in school. Then some fine day by a further forcing of tone let the voice be screwed up to the required highness, and it is spoiled; for when the strength required in forcing the tones becomes apparent we have no longer a singer but a screecher.

Is there now a possibility of correcting or helping all these faults? There is. It consists in the cultivation of the voice first by a wholly correct, and of course consciously correct, application of the existing voice remedies to the speaking voice, and then, after this end is attained, by the application of the knowledge thus acquired to the singing voice. The following method of voice culture taught by Mr. E. Engel, of Karlsruhe, instructor in voice culture for speaking and singing, many physicians, myself included, learned because of the blessings it imparts in endurance, good tone, and expression. I suffered from chronic catarrh of the throat, a malady that defies all physician's skill. Soon I began to value the instruction for myself and had opportunity to observe its wonderful benefit to the voices of others.

In this voice culture the very first step is a continual practice of the vowels, first alone, then in combination with one, and finally with several, consonants. This is to learn the correct management of the tone and to acquire a proper command of the organs needed in the production of the sounds. At the same time stress is laid on the uniform drawing of the breath, whereby much strength and labor are saved. Gradually the instruction leads to words, sentences, and small selections for reading. Detached poems are memorized in order to fix in mind what has been learned. Later on, when the student takes up the more difficult classics, he for the first time realizes the beauty of their language in all its grandeur. Even in the highest grades of passion which can be expressed by words no force need be employed, for by adjusting the voice media properly the speech carries much farther, is fuller toned, and better sounding.

Not until speaking is well mastered, and this takes from four to six weeks, does the instructor begin on singing, which undoubtedly represents the highest and most complete grade of speech.

The compass of the voice is then determined and gradually increased, without any labor and straining, but almost by playing from tone to tone. At first the sound *a* or one of the other vowels always is sung. When the voice will retain its proper position throughout its entire compass it is allowed gradually to undertake little exercises.

In singing, too, the chief objective point is pure vocalization. This means a correct adjustment of the vocal organs, provided they are correct as far as flesh and blood goes. Every exercise is sung on the single vowels; all the variations are sung in this way and then words take the place of the vowels. Gradually the instruction progresses to the longer and more difficult tasks.

A closer search into the various exercises, an attempt to describe how separate hours are passed is unnecessary. The examples of singing rendered by the teacher, his study into the individuality of his pupil's voice, his adaptation of the exercises to the voice—all these cannot well be put into words; they must be seen, learned, and above all heard. It is the ear through which we learn them. The ear makes it possible for the singer to correct his own faults later on; that is, to recognize every relapse into his former incorrect use of his voice media.

Voice culture should begin with the first school year, before the faulty training in producing sounds has progressed too far. The culture accomplished at this age is almost play, while in later years the same progress requires very much effort.

Moreover instruction in singing is not finished in one year as in these days often is supposed; it requires a long and thorough study to reach the desired goal. But when at last the voice is well developed the singer has the assurance of its complete mastery and with ease can perform parts of which other pupils scarcely dare to dream. Whether he is called upon to sing a part from Wagner or from Mozart his

tones well forth without any trouble, pure and full, and, what is most important, his voice is not strained in the attempt, his listeners are not annoyed and worried, and the singer stays in voice for a lifetime.

One more thing must be mentioned. While by a correct manipulation of the vocal organs the voice is not strained and every irritation of the parts concerned is avoided, it is a fact that throat catarrh constantly annoys those professional orators who have not had training in voice culture. Even after this disease has injured the range and endurance as well as the richness of the voice it will vanish before voice culture, though

previously it has defied all the physician's skill.

Voices entirely spoiled and almost worn out may by the proper culture not only be arrested in their collapse but greatly bettered and even cured. Such has been the experience of many teachers, officers, pulpit orators, actors, and singers, who when almost compelled to give up their professions on account of voice failure have by judicious voice culture been enabled to remain at their posts. Moreover defects in speech, in so far as they are not inborn defects but are such faults as stuttering, lisping, or faltering, may be cured by voice culture.

GERMANY'S FAVORITE PREACHER.

BY MRS. WILLIAM H. WAIT.

THERE are few men in this world whose acquaintance extends from the court of one of Europe's most powerful monarchs to the very poorest subject in the realm; but such an experience is enjoyed by Berlin's great and interesting preacher, Frommel—a man of splendid physique, noble carriage, venerable appearance, and spiritual influence. Equally at home is he in the palace of the kaiser and in the hovel of the humblest peasant, his graceful tact teaching him to do the right thing in the right place and his wonderful adaptability enabling him to appear at ease in every position to which duty calls him. Human nature is to him an open book, and whatever page opens to his gaze he is interested in the study.

If the empress of Germany becomes perplexed concerning the spiritual training of any of her six sons she sends for Frommel, and anxiously asks his counsel and advice. The Fatherland is fortunate in having for its empress a woman who not only is keenly alive to her social duties as the wife of the kaiser but also recognizes that higher, holier duty of motherhood, and often in the training of the youthful princes she finds herself in a maze of doubt, and then Frommel is summoned to help her with his

wise, fatherly plans. But he responds to the call from the humblest with no less gentleness and alertness than he does to royalty's invitation, and many are the stories of his goodness which his friends love to tell about him.

A poor old woman lay dying, and Frommel being in that neighborhood and knowing of her case went to see her. Seeing that she was very, very ill he gave her what she so much desired, his last blessing, after which he asked her if there were not some wish ungratified which he could make a reality for her. She acknowledged that there was, but at the same time refused to tell it for fear he would think her very worldly and weak. Finally, however, she yielded to his kind persuasion and confessed that she had a very great desire to "taste cherries once more" before she died. Knowing that the physicians had said that her case was hopeless and that death was distant only a few hours, Frommel determined to gratify her longing; so he descended the stairs in quest of a fruit-woman, and fortunately found one near at hand with a large basket of the luscious fruit. To the astonishment of the woman he bought her entire stock, and it was soon deposited at the bedside of the dying

woman, whom he gently called "mother," bidding her at the same time to eat as many cherries as she wished—and to the surprise of herself and Frommel she finally recovered.

At another time, late at night, he came out of a house where he had been entertained and hailing a *droshky* (or cab) he directed the driver to take him to his home, which was some distance away. After they had ridden a number of blocks and were in the midst of the Thiergarten, that wonderfully beautiful park in the heart of Berlin, the vehicle suddenly stopped, the driver dismounted, and appeared at the carriage door. Frommel demanded the "why" of this extraordinary proceeding, which was certainly calculated to arouse one's nerves, as the carriage was in a very lonely part of the park and midnight was just shaking hands with morning.

"Have I not heard that voice before?" demanded the *kutscher* (driver) in an excited tone. "Perhaps," replied Frommel, still at a loss to account for the man's actions, unless he were insane. Like the firing of minute artillery came the questions until it was developed that Frommel had been chaplain of the man's regiment in the Franco-Prussian War. The simple instruction which Frommel had given him when he entered the cab had awakened memories in the man's mind of a wonderful voice which had counseled, guided, and comforted him and his comrades during that great conflict of a quarter of a century ago. When they arrived at Frommel's home the great preacher invited the humble driver in and gave him his picture, for the sake of *auld lang syne*, and his last new book. The latter gift caused the poor *kutscher's* heart to overflow with gratitude, as his wife had begged him to buy it for her next Christmas present; for many who have not the privilege of hearing him speak eagerly drink in his written words, as his great thoughts are all told in such simple language that a child can understand them.

After recalling the old days and accepting Frommel's hospitality the driver equaled in chivalry the knights of long ago, as he (although he had driven for over an hour

in a cold winter night) begged to be excused from accepting the fee which Frommel proffered him upon his departure.

It was our good fortune to see Frommel in the midst of a Christmas celebration given for some of the poorest people of Berlin. The large room was filled to overflowing, and a buzz of impatience began to be heard, as the hour was long past when the exercises were to have begun. Not only impatience but disappointment was evident in the faces of the men and women as well as the children, for "our dear Frommel" had not come to speak to them, as they had hoped he would. With him absent it seemed as if the essence of the entertainment were left out. But at length there were some glad little cries of "Ach! Ach!" from the people near the door and a splendidly formed man, erect and stately, with a wealth of snow-white hair, entered. How the dull faces lightened as the crowd caught sight of him, and what a death-like stillness settled over the people as he began talking! After having explained his tardiness, caused by a summons from the empress and attendance at the dying bed of a poor woman, in that vibrating, rich, sonorous voice he told the old, old story of the world's first Christmas gift.

It was not simply interest, but love which shone in the people's faces, and his close acquaintanceship with them was shown by the charming manner in which they responded to him, for every verse of scripture which he began to quote was taken up by the audience and repeated in unison with him. The whole affair did not have a public nature, but appeared to be a father's loving talk to his children, and after it was over they flocked about him, eager to grasp his outstretched hand, while his face beamed with such goodness that under it all mankind could find shelter.

Fortunate indeed is Germany to have for its court preacher a man whose heart holds the entire scale of human feeling, so that he can appreciate the trials and joys of all classes, from the kaiser and his court to the humblest subject in the empire, his great mind finding its balance in his tender heart.

EDITOR'S OUTLOOK.

CAMPAIGN DECEPTIONS.

DURING every political campaign the people of the United States are urged to the highest pitch of excitement by means not always worthy of approval, and too often downright deception is systematically practiced by the managers of both great parties. Argument based upon facts is one thing, contention with nothing but fiction to support it is quite another thing. There can be but one result, in the long run, if we continue to deceive the people in order to carry elections; that result will be the utter demoralization of political faith. We may make glaring falsehoods and cunning prevarications serve a partisan turn for a certain number of times; but there is a limit. Year by year popular shrewdness and breadth of understanding are developed; what deceived them yesterday will be comprehended to-morrow.

It is the part of statesmanship and patriotism to bear constantly in mind that we are making history. Good citizenship imperiously demands good faith in the consideration of public interests. What is an election if it is not based upon honesty and open-handed fairness? Officers may be secured by trickery, fraud, sophistry; but can the popular mind be kept safely pure for any great period if we continually educate it to familiarity with political dishonesty and indifference to unconscionable campaign methods?

What sort of education is it to our young men and boys to study political ways and means in a practical manner at this moment? Scarcely can it be possible that the simplest mind will not feel, however obscurely, that partisan arguments are largely made up of falsehoods gorgeously painted with an outward coating of truth.

Of course a campaign is an important struggle, and every good citizen should feel the responsibility with which a vote is burdened. We must weigh well our choice be-

tween the theories of parties, and also between the character and purposes of candidates. Not frenzied partisanship, ready to sacrifice truth and honor for present victory, but calm, thoughtful, conscientious judgment is what should govern political action. The present election is not the last one we shall hold in our country, and the evil of this campaign will be arising to plague us hereafter. We may have difficulty when we attempt to explain away the falsehoods of our hideously lurid prophecies. It is always safe, always manly, always right to tell only what is true and to abide by the result of honorable effort, and it is always unmanly, always unpatriotic, always dangerous, and never right to suffer our greed for victory to override our sense of truth.

An election is an object lesson of stupendous influence over the popular mind. We cannot say how far this influence goes in molding our people's character; but certainly there is nothing in our current national life more strikingly memorable than the main elements of a national campaign. Would that these elements were all worthy of admiring study by the youths who are soon to be the masters of our political destiny.

IMPROVEMENT IN FARM LIFE.

SAID a thoroughly informed person the other day: "Make farm life attractive to women and you will have solved the vexed question of rural experience. A woman, whether girl or matron, is a social and esthetic being; she must have company and she must have beautiful surroundings." It would be difficult to squeeze more truth into so short a paragraph. Make farm homes beautiful and farm life social; happiness will come in apace with the change.

When rightly considered why should it be hard to make an attractive place of the farmhouse? Let us answer this inquiry by first glancing at what the place needs to make it

attractive outside. Is the house painted? Are the trees around it neatly trimmed? Is the grass of the lawn kept smooth with a lawn-mower?

We know a man who bought a fertile farm of two hundred acres upon which stood a large, dilapidated house. The fences were tattered, the orchard disheveled, and worst of all the barn, a stanch but unsightly building, stood almost between the house and the public highway running in front. Indeed the whole estate wore a ragged, haggard, forlorn look, and it was hard to see how it ever could be made comfortable, much less beautiful. But in less than two months the change came, as if by magic. The great old barn was rolled back to some distance in the rear of the house, and the house itself was re-roofed, repainted, and generally overhauled inside and out. Every panel of fence on the farm had been reset, every outhouse had been made like new, and the whole farm looked like a garden. What was the cost of all this work? Just twelve hundred and eighty-nine dollars, and the new owner had a farm and home to be proud of, worth on the market sixty dollars the acre. Here was made a home as attractive as it was comfortable and valuable, and the secret of it was taste.

In a word, as taste improves among the farming folk country life will be brightened and sweetened. The pig-pen must not remain in sight, if life is to gather what the eyes may be best delighted with; the barns and stables must retire and let the house and lawn show clean and inviting from the highway, while fences and ditches and hedges testify to an honest delight taken by the owner in making what he owns beautiful as well as profitable. And it is pleasant to record here the fact that a great change is rapidly passing over American farm life in the direction of tasteful and wholesome care for exterior attractiveness as well as for interior betterment and the enlargement of social views.

Our system of common schools is gradually opening many ways to intelligent understanding of the higher life where intellectual and esthetical interests go side by side with the

coarser economies. The church, the lyceum, the literary club, and the various social and charitable establishments are doing their fine work even in remote rural nooks. Every competent observer sees and feels a decided veering of rural currents toward intelligent consideration of what we call culture. The movement may be slow and faltering; but it indicates no uncertainty.

But how shall the way be best smoothed and this happy change be most successfully hastened? The conservative spirit is stubborn in our sound-hearted and hard-headed rural population. Fashions and habits and traits die hard where the community does not feel the direct urge and stress of conventional requirements. On the farm there is little to provoke inquiry touching the latest wave-caps of that great sea called human progress. A newspaper comes once a week, a magazine, possibly, once a month; but the stream of the world's great throbbing life is scarcely known to exist; it is but faintly adumbrated, as the picture of a picture. Still, culture and the sweets of it are becoming facts within the feeling and the vision of the youngest generation of country people in America, and we may as well face the duty of rightly directing the inevitable reform in country life.

Education—and by the word we mean book education—is the chief factor in every great social and intellectual change for the better. Good literature is not the whole of life; but it is a corner-stone of true enlightenment. The greatest need of our country people is to read, to learn, to strengthen and broaden their grasp of what are the best possibilities of human existence. Not so much mere polite culture as solid wisdom in life's lighter affairs is demanded. Facility in reaching happiness of an enlightened sort, a quick comprehension of the difference between crudeness and refinement, and a cordial recognition of what a desirable thing a refined life is, are mightily aided by good reading. It is because country people are reading and studying as they never read and studied before that a great improvement in farm life is beginning to make itself apparent.

CURRENT HISTORY AND OPINION.*

THE POLITICAL CAMPAIGN.



MAJOR WILLIAM MCKINLEY.

EVERY passing day deepens the contrast presented in the campaign plans of the two leading political parties, representing sound money and free silver respectively.

The sound money champion, Maj. William McKinley, has remained at his home in Canton, O., and delegations have visited him almost every working day for about three months. These delegations have come from sections east as far as Vermont, south as far as Tennessee, and west as far as Peoria, Ill. They have consisted chiefly of companies of working men, such as potters, tin plate makers, iron and steel workers, glass workers, and mechanics of various kinds. Farmers, editors, veterans, ministers, women's clubs, lawyers, real estate men, traveling salesmen—people of all occupations trades, professions, and interests have been among their number. On one day Major McKinley made eleven addresses to sixteen delegations aggregating more than fifteen thousand persons. Other delegations are booked for pilgrimages to Canton up till October 22.

Besides these large

companies representatives of nearly every state in the Union have come to Canton to visit Major McKinley.

Beginning with his journey east to receive at New York the formal notification of his nomination for president by the Democratic National Convention, Mr. William J. Bryan has made addresses for the free silver cause at Des Moines, Ia.; Chicago, Ill.; along through Ohio and Indiana; at Pittsburg, Pa.; and on to New York. He worked industriously in New York state, and continued his itinerancy into Erie, Pa.; Cleveland and Columbus, O.; Chicago, Ill.; Milwaukee, Wis.; and back to Chicago, Ill.; thence on to North Carolina, to Richmond and Fredericksburg, Va., into Delaware and southeastern Pennsylvania, through to New Haven, Conn., Boston, Mass., and into the state of Maine. He returned by way of New York to extend his speech-making tour into the states west of the Mississippi River. At the opening of October Mr. Bryan had delivered more than two hundred campaign addresses.



WILLIAM JENNINGS BRYAN.

DYNAMITE PLOT IN ENGLAND.

ALL Europe has been shaken by the discovery of a dynamite plot to destroy the czar and czarina while on their proposed visit to England, together with Queen Victoria, the Prince of Wales, and other members of the English royal family. On September 12 British authorities arrested four suspected dynamiters, Edward Bell at Glasgow, Scotland, John F. Kearney and a Mr. Maine at Rotterdam, Holland, and P. J. P. Tynan at Boulogne-sur-Mer, France. In possession of the men at Rotterdam were captured several infernal machines and correspondence in cipher with the key thereto, and at Antwerp enough explosives were found to destroy a large city. As gleaned from the correspondence the plan was to blow up Balmoral Castle, Scotland, when it should be occupied by the above-named members of royalty. Advices of

* This department, together with the book "The Growth of the French Nation," constitutes a Special C. L. S. C. course, for the reading of which a seal is given.

September 19 report that Great Britain has demanded the extradition of Tynan by the French government. Tynan is a naturalized citizen of the United States. On September 15 it was rumored that the dynamite plot was nothing but a scheme invented for the purpose of enabling the Irish political prisoners, Gallagher, Daly, Whitehead, and others, who were released from English prisons in August to secure their freedom by betraying the alleged dynamite conspirators into the hands of the police. However, the Berlin press scoffs at the plot as being merely an English trick upon the czar.

The Rhode Island Country Journal. (Providence.)

So far as Ireland is concerned, the hope of achieving any advantage by blowing up Balmoral Castle or any other building was obviously fatuous. It is true that home rule seems to be dead, and that the home rule leaders are quarreling over the corpse. On the other hand there is an increasing disposition, manifested in many ways, on the part of men of every shade of political belief to promote Irish interests by practical measures. An occurrence that revives unpleasant memories and casts doubt upon the willingness of the Irish people to work together with Englishmen for the good of Ireland is in the nature of a public crime. That the conspiracy has been foiled does not make it less criminal.

Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

Sir Matthew White Ridley, the British home secretary, declares that he released the Irish political prisoners solely because of the medical reports submitted to him concerning their condition. Similar reports concerning Mrs. Maybrick, supplemented by very reasonable doubts as to her guilt, have failed to make a similar impression on the pardoning power, and it is to be feared that Sir Matthew was moved to action by something more potent than medical certificates.

The Mail and Express. (New York, N. Y.)

The assertion that the four Irish political prisoners recently released by Great Britain were liberated on condition that one of them should become a spy in the service of Scotland Yard for the purpose of running down the reported conspiracy is almost too preposterous for belief.

The Philadelphia Inquirer. (Pa.)

It does not, however, seem so significant that these alleged discoveries have been made just as the czar was about to visit France and England as that they should have so quickly followed the discharge of the Irish prisoners from an English prison.

The New York Post. (N. Y.)

They [the Irish prisoners] might tell the jail authorities what kind of a man Tynan is, but they could only have known that he was going to blow up the royal family and the czar and czarina of Russia about this time by means of frequent communication with him. So that if they have been able to give the information that led to his arrest they must have heard from him recently. If all this be correct it is a curious revelation about the state of prison discipline. Who knows but Mr. Asquith was keeping hold of the dynamiters to supply him with news about Tynan, and that Tynan was warned not to blow up any palace till the Tories got into power?

Boston Journal. (Mass.)

It had been thought that, both in Russia and in England, the day of dynamite plots was over. But there can be no lasting assurance upon this point. Experience has shown, in France and Italy, in Spain and Turkey, and in the United States as well, that dynamite furnishes a fearful agency to morbid and desperate men who are at war with society or with individuals. The existence of such an agency and the ease with which it may be employed imposes a new and urgent duty upon governments.

The New York Recorder. (N. Y.)

Assassination is not progress. The queen, the czar, and all the other nominal rulers of Europe might be blown sky-high to-morrow, and still the political and social conditions over there would remain unchanged. There would just be a new set of rulers.

The Outlook. (New York, N. Y.)

A curious circumstance is that it is alleged that the British authorities derived their information from one of the recently released Irish political prisoners. How a man who had been in solitary confinement for many years should be well informed about plots in America and Europe does not appear.

ITALY SETTLES HER ABYSSINIAN ACCOUNT.

The *finale* of Italy's downfall in Africa is her accession to the terms of peace dictated by King Menelik, of Abyssinia. According to advices from Rome of September 15 the treaty requires Italy to pay Abyssinia two million francs as compensation for sustaining the three thousand Italian prisoners held by King Menelik as hostages; it moreover requires the definite determination of the bounds of Italy's colony Erythrea and that the Italians do not overstep those bounds. Rumor says that King Menelik is backed by Russia in his demands.

New York Observer. (N. Y.)

The conditions of peace imposed upon Italy by Abyssinia are alike creditable to the latter and humiliating to the former. One leading stipulation is the payment by the Roman government of the sum of \$400,000, which to sooth Italian pride is described, not as a war indemnity, but as "compensation for sustaining the Italians captured during the war." Such a payment forced upon a European power by a semi-barbarous African state would be humiliating enough in any event, but when it is known that many of Menelik's captives were "sustained" by having one hand and one foot cut off, the humiliation becomes abject. The other principal stipulation in view of the fact that Abyssinia yielded much of the territory in question under coercion, is exceedingly moderate.

The Republican Standard. (Bridgeport, Conn.)

The demand that Italy shall pay 2,000,000 francs indemnity to Abyssinia as a condition of peace is a blow to the national pride of the former country which will be productive of very much feeling. Still the peace party is strong and it may be able to force matters even with that bitter pill as the price of getting out of its expensive, foolish, and unfortunate eastern complications.

Philadelphia Inquirer. (Pa.)

The region which Italy took from the Soudanese she may retain, but not the territory which was wrested from King John. Unless Italy accedes to Menelik's demands there is likely to be some serious fighting in the neighborhood of Massowah, and probably an Italian defeat and humiliation more severe than in the last campaign.

The Chicago Record. (Ill.)

Italy, after having just concluded conditions of peace with King Menelik of Abyssinia is not in a fighting mood and notifies Brazil that the cruiser *Piemonte*, sent to that country, is entirely friendly in its mission. The prospect of having to pay another board-bill such as she has just settled with landlord Negus of Abyssinia is evidently not pleasant to Italy.

Boston Journal. (Mass.)

The terms which she has had to make with Abyssinia cannot be very flattering to the pride of Italy, but she is probably glad to end that enterprise even at such cost.

The Sun. (New York N. Y.)

If the conditions of the peace just concluded between Italy and Abyssinia are correctly reported they are not only creditable to the moderation of the latter but such as Italy can honorably accept.

QUEEN VICTORIA'S LONG REIGN.



QUEEN VICTORIA.

ON September 22 Queen Victoria's reign gained a new point of distinction over that of any of her predecessors by becoming the longest reign of any British sovereign recorded in history. In honor of the event church bells were rung that morning in London and other cities, and the national anthem was played in the theaters in the evening, but by the queen's request the official celebration will not be held until the completion of the sixtieth year of her reign. That will be in 1897, Queen Victoria having ascended the throne on June 20, 1837. The English monarch who occupied the throne next longest to Victoria was George III. He reigned nominally for more than 59 years, but, owing to his insanity, for nearly a decade before his death the kingdom was formally ruled by his oldest son as prince regent. Queen Victoria was born on May 24, 1819, and with the exception of King George III., who died in his 83d year, and King George II., who died in his 77th year, she has lived to a greater age than has been reached by any other English sovereign on record. Moreover, she is older than any other European sovereign except the king of Denmark, who is about eleven months her senior.

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

The queen did not want to be hailed at the very moment she crossed the line, so to speak, for out-reining her grandfather, or for "breaking all English records" in this particular.

The Mail and Express. (New York, N. Y.)

Her reign has witnessed the greatest progress, moral, mental, and material, that the world has ever known. It is true that England's position in the political world is less satisfactory than at any

time since the fall of the First Napoleon, but nations are not more free from the ups and downs of fortune, and the penalties of error, than are individuals. These maintain the balance of the world, and represent the leaven of human power. There is still a future.

Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

The houses of Normandy, Plantagenet, Lancaster, York, Tudor, and Stuart were not very long lived. The house of Hanover, to which Queen

Victoria belongs, has given to Britain the most venerable sovereigns in the persons of George II., George III., William IV., and Victoria. Elizabeth, the most venerable scion of the house of Tudor, died in her 71st year. She died in 1603, and from that year back to Alfred, over 700 years, no English king or queen reached 70 years, though the royal age record is not quite complete. One of the notable events in the life of Queen Victoria was the celebration of her "jubilee," in 1887, marking the completion of fifty years' reign. Only three English monarchs lived to celebrate a jubilee year—Henry III., Edward III., and George III. A chronicler writing in Victoria's jubilee year, contrasting the reigns of George III. and Victoria, says: "Within living memory 'the days of fifty years ago, when George III. was king' were thought of and sung about as the best in our annals. But to-day a different opinion prevails, for it is acknowledged by all that the glories of the Georgian era are surpassed by those of the Victorian, in which the development and practical application of science to

our arts and industries, the extension of popular liberties, and the spread of education have revolutionized the nation's commerce and wrought a vast improvement in the social condition of Her Majesty's subjects."

The Christian Advocate. (Belfast, Ireland.)

Her Majesty has now seen five archbishops of Canterbury and six of York, and four bishops of London; she has seen eleven lord chancellors, ten prime ministers, and six speakers of the House of Commons; she has outlived all the members of her original privy council; and of her first House of Commons only Mr. Gladstone, Mr. C. P. Villiers, and Mr. J. Temple Leader, and possibly one or two others, now survive. Since Her Majesty came to the throne she has seen every Episcopal see vacated and refilled twice at least, and most of them four and even five times, and her judicial bench recruited twice at least from end to end. We trust Her Majesty will still be spared for many years to come to bless her country by her beautiful life and wise example.

THE NILE EXPEDITION.



GENERAL KITCHENER.

DONGOLA, the objective point of the Nile expedition under General Kitchener, has been reached triumphantly, and again it is rumored that England will stop at nothing less than control of the whole Soudan. With the rise of the Nile River enough to permit the transportation of supplies by boat, preparations to resume the march on Dongola were begun by the establishment, on August 19, of press censorship over the dispatches sent out from the Anglo-Egyptian camp at Kosheh. Advices of August 22 from the Congo Free State reported that Belgian forces, joined by several hundred British hussars and led by Baron Dhanis, had reached the White Nile and occupied Lado in readiness for coöperation with the Anglo-Egyptian forces against the Mahdists. According to a telegram received September 19 from General Kitchener, the dervishes strongly established at Kerma abandoned their post upon the approach of his troops and retired to El Hafir, about forty miles north of Dongola. This fort they stubbornly defended but finally were routed with the loss of many warriors killed and twenty-seven grain-laden boats captured

by the Egyptians. The dervishes then retreated toward Dongola, but the British gunboats arrived there before them and finding the place unprotected by dervishes took possession of it without opposition.

The Times-Democrat. (New Orleans, La.)

This is an exceptionally easy victory, and is due mainly to three causes: first, the disaffection among the Arab tribes of the Soudan which prevented their supporting the Khalifa heartily; second, to the magnificent fighting trim of the British and Egyptian forces; and third, to the good management of the expedition and the superb artillery equipment of the gunboats.

The Republican Standard. (Bridgeport, Conn.)

The taking of Dongola is the first step in the reconquest of the Soudan, and it shows how surely

England is advancing in that matter. She does not propose to make any mistake this time. There will be no Gordons sacrificed, and no Khartum massacres. The Maxim gun played an important part in the battle before Dongola.

The Philadelphia Inquirer. (Pa.)

By the fall of Dongola England has gained more prestige in the East, and the European powers will be more determined than ever that she shall not lift her hand against Turkey. The lot of the Christians in the sultan's dominions is now likely to be harder than ever.

The Denver Republican. (Col.)

The campaign has been a very easy one thus far. It remains to be seen what it will be when the invaders reach points nearer the heart of the Soudan.

Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

To hold the country England may be forced to engage in harassing and desultory warfare for an indefinite period, but the reconquest of the Soudan appears to be necessary for the prestige of England and the safety of Egypt. It is important that England should join in the campaign in order to hold Egypt, and she must hold Egypt to maintain her influence over Turkey and keep the Suez Canal route to India.

The Chicago Record. (Ill.)

It has been manifest all along that something more than a friendly diversion in favor of Italy has been in view, and the notable success of the expedition so far gives promise that General Kitchener will redeem English honor and restore English prestige in the Soudan.

The Independent. (New York, N. Y.)

England will be disappointed and the world will be disappointed if General Kitchener is not allowed to proceed, as he can now do without opposition,

the rest of the way. The route is now open by the Nile, and the Indian forces can join them at Berber, coming from Suakim on the Red Sea coast. We may expect the campaign to be accomplished before the end of the fighting season, and when it is accomplished it will give England the complete control of the great Nile Valley from Alexandria as far as the Victoria Nyanza, where its territories will meet those of the German colonies and the Congo Free State. All this means a great deal for the civilization of Africa, and it practically accomplishes the annihilation of the last strong Mohammedan power in Africa.

The Times. (Hartford, Conn.)

England occupies Dongola, on the Nile. But her triumph in the expedition now in service will not be complete till her forces occupy the Soudan, up to the Congo Free State.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

The next move will be, of course, to take Ambukol and Corti. In one way or another it will doubtless be made without delay, and the speedy end will be the destruction of the horrors of dervish rule and the restoration of the eastern Soudan to civilized control.

THE PAN-IRISH CONVENTION AT DUBLIN.

AMONG the two thousand representatives of the Irish race attracted to the Pan-Irish Convention held at Dublin, Ireland, on September 1-3, were delegates from Australia, South America, Canada, the United States, England, and Ireland. Their avowed object was to overcome the lack of unity among the factions which have been demoralizing the Irish Parliamentary party. Yet in the proceedings of the convention the Parliamentary party was represented only by the Dillonites, the Parnellites and Healyites refusing to act on the ground that the convention was not representative of the Irish people and that it was called by Mr. Dillon not to induce unity but to replenish the finances of his particular faction. The pope sanctioned the convention. It was called to order by Justin McCarthy, M. P., and the Rt. Rev. Dr. Patrick O'Donnell, Roman Catholic bishop of Raphoe, was elected permanent chairman. Resolutions were carried favoring the reconstitution of a united Irish party on the home rule plan and "disciplined under the rule of the majority," the last clause causing much discussion. The Irish Parliamentary party was allowed by vote to retain the exclusive administration of the Irish Parliamentary funds, and the convention passed a vote favoring the establishment of a Catholic university for the purpose of preserving the Irish language.

The Christian Guardian. (Toronto, Canada.)

Whether any practical or forceful union of the Irish parties is reached will only be tested by Parliamentary results.

Baptist Outlook. (Indianapolis, Ind.)

Nothing of real value to the cause of Irish nationalism is likely to result from it, since it was largely under the influence of the Catholic hierarchy. The pope sent his benediction, and a Catholic bishop was made chairman. The blessing of the Romish hierarchy is worse than its ban, and liberty is not meant to thrive where it is in the ascendant.

The Irish World. (New York, N. Y.)

Ireland's enemies are well aware that the convention voiced the claim of every man in all Ireland except those persons belonging to the small Protestant

ascendency minority. This the Tories of England and of Ireland know perfectly, and it is because they know it, and know, moreover, that the voice and demand of a nation cannot be choked off or denied, that they and their papers write in abusive terms of the convention and its promoters. That they do so is one more proof, and a very good one, that the convention was a grand and successful demonstration of Irish nationality.

The Rhode Island Country Journal. (Providence.)

The convention of Irish Nationalists at Dublin has come and gone without having any marked effect upon the prospects of the home rule cause. It is generally admitted by impartial observers that the opposition to the leadership of Mr. Dillon is too pronounced to be overcome by soft speeches,

Meanwhile true friends of Ireland will be glad to note that political agitation has less and less influence with the Irish people, and that the increasing prosperity of the country is making the recital of its woes by Mr. Dillon and his associates somewhat absurd.

The Seattle Post-Intelligencer. (Wash.)

The Dublin convention did not by any means accomplish what Irishmen could have hoped for. It is true that a majority of the delegates came together, but the work of the convention does not receive the approval of all the Irish leaders, and so long as some of them stand out it is of course idle to expect any united action by the Irish party.

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

Obviously it cannot be said that this convention has succeeded in healing the dissensions of the Irish party. The Healyites and Parnellites are as recalcitrant as ever in their attitude toward Mr. Dillon, and they firmly decline to believe that the friends of Ireland in the United States and Canada will contribute money for the purpose of enabling that leader to oust them from their seats. That they are greatly preponderant in Dublin the last general election proved.

The Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

The convention has given extensive advertising to the fact that the jealousies and rivalries of the Irish leaders have almost disintegrated the National party. If the report be true that these rivalries are to be carried to the polls the Irish representatives to the next Parliament will exercise little influence upon

legislation, since they will expend their energies in disputes among themselves. This condition of affairs is lamentable, since it means the continuance of unrest in Ireland and the probability of riotous outbreaks, as the peasantry grasp the fact that the dissension of the Irish leaders has indefinitely postponed the settlement of the Irish question by constitutional means.

The Outlook. (New York, N. Y.)

It remains to be seen whether this great meeting of representative Irishmen will result in the wished-for harmony. With the pope's blessing, the concurrence of the hierarchy, and great encouragement from Irishmen in all parts of the world, if the faction fights continue the home rule cause will, nevertheless, be in a worse plight than before.

New York Tribune. (New York, N. Y.)

There was one significant feature of the proceedings which may have a determining effect upon the future fortunes of the Nationalist cause. That was the formal and unanimous declaration of all the delegates from outside of Ireland that in their belief the convention was a representative body, truly voicing the Irish national spirit. . . . Such a statement, made by such men, however it may be regarded by the rival factions in Ireland, can scarcely fail to have much weight abroad. If it shall prevail with the friends of Ireland in America and elsewhere, whose contributions have been the chief support of the Nationalist cause, the other two factions will have hard work to maintain their existence.

DR. GEORGE BROWNE GOODE.



DR. GEORGE BROWNE GOODE.

ON September 6 at Lanier Heights, Washington, D. C., death resulting from pneumonia closed the useful career of Dr. George Browne Goode, assistant secretary of the Smithsonian Institution and curator of the United States National Museum at Washington, D. C. Of New England ancestry, Mr. Goode was born in New Albany, Ind., in 1851. He attended Wesleyan University at Middletown, Conn. While there he showed great proficiency in scientific studies, especially natural history, and before his graduation, in 1870, he was made supervisor of the collections of the university. In 1873 he was given a place on the staff of the Smithsonian Institution and removed to Washington, D. C. When, for the purpose of putting the government's collections in readiness for the Philadelphia Exposition in 1876, the National Museum was established Mr. Goode was immediately given complete charge of it. In 1887 the United States State Department employed him as statistical expert on the Halifax Fisheries Commission and he was sent as United States commissioner to the International Fishery Exhibition

held at Berlin in 1880 and at London in 1883. At the Columbian Exposition in Chicago, 1893, he represented the Smithsonian Institution and last year at the Cotton States International Exposition in Atlanta he was on the board of awards. Some of the results of his researches have been published in more than a hundred papers on ichthyology, museum administration, and fishery economy.

The Christian Advocate. (New York, N. Y.)

The death of Dr. Goode is a national bereavement and a loss to science throughout the civilized world. Personally he was most attractive, beloved and honored by the alumni of Wesleyan University and a charm in society wherever he moved.

Harper's Weekly. (New York, N. Y.)

Personally Professor Goode was of so happy a temperament as to endear him to all who were thrown into relationship with him. Perhaps no position could have been more arduous than when he represented the United States at great industrial and scientific exhibitions at home or abroad. If the preparation of the material took several years, as

many more were occupied in the return of thousands of objects, or in the exchanges one country made with another. The claims of the United States National Museum were always on his mind. To have had the great museum of the country under his control necessitated a thoroughly accomplished man, and so, aside from pure science, his knowledge of art was cosmical. No man could have grasped the ends and aims of a museum more thoroughly and completely than did Professor Goode. A man must do his best, and knowing the arduous task allotted to him may be willing to die in harness. If, then, anything shortened the years of George Browne Goode it was overwork.

JAPAN'S PROGRESSIVE MINISTRY RESIGNS.



PRIME MINISTER ITO.

NATIONS having interests in Japan will anxiously regard the downfall of that country's progressive cabinet. The chief outgoing cabinet members are Marquis Ito, premier, Baron Ito, secretary of the cabinet, Count Mutsu, foreign minister, and Mr. Itagaki, minister of the interior, their resignations, with those of the other members of the cabinet, having been announced in a dispatch of August 28 from Yokohama. Count Kuroda was made temporary premier during the recess of Parliament and on September 18 advices from Yokohama reported the appointment of Count Matsukata for prime minister and minister of finance, Viscount Takashima for minister of war, and Count Okuma for minister of foreign affairs. The dispatches contain no explanation for this action of Premier Ito's cabinet, but it is the not unexpected outcome of this liberal ministry's long struggle against the growing power of the reactionary forces. His record as one of the foremost leaders in Japan's march to a broader civilization is a long one, dating from

his services in effecting a peaceful transition from feudal to imperial rule in 1868.

The Kokmin Shimbun. (Tokyo, Japan.)

The Ito cabinet is clever in pleasing foreigners, but unskilled in using them to its own purposes. Hence it meets with many *contretemps* in its foreign policy. The methods pursued by the Ito cabinet suggest that to show friendship toward the representatives of great powers is deemed sufficient, but we see no evidence of an attempt to make use of the services of foreigners so that Japan's interests may be boldly pushed.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

It is pretty confidently to be believed that the great minister has retired because of the hostility of the reactionary party, and that on account thereof the policy of Japan will be somewhat less liberal and progressive than it has been. Lord Ito has been, more than any other man—possibly excepting his friend and colleague Field Marshal Lord Yamagata—identified with the renaissance and development of Japan. He was one of the original advocates of opening the country to foreign intercourse at a time when such advocacy was little short of high treason. . . . Weary of factional

strife with his ungrateful countrymen, he has resigned. It is an incident not of good omen to Japan or to other powers which have intimate relations with Japan. Within the next three years the important new treaties abolishing extra-territorial jurisdiction will come into force, and it will be little short of disastrous if a bigoted anti-foreign minister is then in power.

The Philadelphia Record. (Pa.)

Although still a young man, being only forty-five years of age, Marquis Ito can count a list of achievements to his credit that might well satisfy the most ambitious of men. The building up of representative government upon the ruins of feudalism in Japan, the organization of the army and navy upon European models, and the founding of the modern educational system of the country were mainly brought about through his instrumentality.

Zion's Herald. (Boston, Mass.)

The change is ominous, and the results, in the administration of the affairs of the island empire, will be studied by progressive men with both interest and anxiety.

GLADSTONE ON THE TURKISH QUESTION.



WILLIAM EWART GLADSTONE.

ONCE more the Grand Old Man, the Hon. William E. Gladstone, takes up the burden of directing the English people from the public platform. Roused from his retirement by the Turks' massacre of about four thousand Armenians on August 28 in Constantinople, under the very eyes of the ambassadors to the porte, he accepted an invitation of the Reform Club to speak on September 24 at Henler's Circus in Liverpool, in protest against the recent Turkish atrocities. About four thousand persons were present. In his speech of one hour and a quarter he made two chief points. One in the form of a resolution, which was unanimously adopted, was his assertion of faith in the intention and ability of the Salisbury ministry to take the best possible action for ending the Turkish persecutions. The other was his recommendation that the ambassador to the porte be withdrawn and the Turkish ambassador dismissed, but that if this course should entail upon England war with European powers then England must back down rather than plunge all Europe into war. This demonstration in Liverpool was fol-

lowed on October 6 by Lord Rosebery's resignation from the leadership of the Liberal party. Lord Rosebery's reason for this action is that he disagrees with Gladstone's views on the eastern question.

Norddeutsche Allgemeine Zeitung. (Berlin, Germany.)

It must be painful to many Englishmen to find that Mr. Gladstone does not know of any other remedy for the Turkish excess than to threaten the sultan, while at the same time confessing that the threats could not be followed by action.

Vossische Zeitung. (Berlin, Germany.)

There is the possibility that the almost violent language employed by Mr. Gladstone may reawaken the fanaticism of the Moslems and the Armenian revolutionists and their followers, leading to the very results which he so strongly denounced.

The New York Post. (N. Y.)

Lord Salisbury is allowing the greatest savage in Christendom to ridicule and violate under his nose the very agreement [the Berlin treaty] which he came home and told the English people was "peace with honor." There is peace certainly, but, shades of Cromwell and Pitt! what about the honor?

The Republican Standard. (Bridgeport, Conn.)

Russia is ready for war. Her armies are on the borders of India and Turkey, and her navy is afloat, with steam up, ready to cooperate. She shows no disposition to allow any effort to coerce the sultan without involving a settlement with her also. What will England do? What can she do?

The Sun. (London, England.)

Lord Rosebery never had a fair chance. Whenever he indicated a policy it was immediately thrown over by his supposed colleagues. Nevertheless everybody knows that Mr. Gladstone stood outside of the painful intrigues, odious bickerings, and miserable personalities which defaced and wrecked the Liberal party since his retirement.

The Boston Transcript. (Mass.)

Mr. Gladstone is amply justified in ridiculing the idea that a state of war would result from England's serving an ultimatum on Turkey. Far rather a state of peace would follow, and England would at one bound leap into her old position as the great power whose sanction must be sought by the others.

The New Orleans Picayune. (La.)

Whether Lord Salisbury will be able to resist the popular clamor it is difficult to foresee; but it is very certain that Great Britain is in no position to cope with the rest of Europe.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

It is not the voice of the fiery leader of twenty years ago. Mr. Gladstone can scarcely again assume the responsibility of government, wherefore it is fitting that he should speak as an adviser rather than as a commander. But neither will his advice be found to contain any hopeful solution of the tragic problem.

Baltimore American. (Md.)

It is possible that Mr. Gladstone's reappearance under such circumstances will exert an influence on the powers or even the Turk, but not very probable.

The Denver Republican. (Col.)

It is well to consider the poor Armenians, but it would be well to consider also the thousands of European soldiers and others who would suffer if a general war should take place.

The Echo. (London, England.)

Lord Rosebery throughout has taken a common-sense view of the eastern and western situation, while the other Liberal leaders have taken narrower and more emotional views. Lord Rosebery's resignation will strengthen Lord Salisbury.

EX-SENATOR HENRY B. PAYNE.



EX-SENATOR HENRY B. PAYNE.

OHIO's venerable statesman ex-United States Senator Henry B. Payne died from paralysis on September 9 at his home in Cleveland, O. The only surviving members of his family, a son and a daughter, were with him during his last moments. Mr. Payne was born in Hamilton, Madison Co., N. Y., on November 30, 1810. He was educated for the ministry at Hamilton College, Clinton, N. Y., but on his graduation, in 1832, he turned to the study of law. In 1834 he moved to Cleveland, O. Here for twelve years he practiced law, meanwhile branching out into work that gave him prominence in the business world. His political tendencies were conservative Democratic. In 1849 he was sent to the Ohio State Senate, where he served two years. At the end of that time he became president of the Columbus and Cleveland Railroad. As a delegate to the National Democratic Conventions of 1856-1860 he supported Stephen A. Douglas. During the Civil War Mr. Payne was a Unionist. In 1875-77 he represented Ohio in Congress. Here he was made chairman of the House Committee on Banking and Currency, and through his efforts the Edmonds Bill was passed. In his second term in the House he was one of the five members of the Electoral Commission. From 1884-1890 he served in the United States Senate. Besides his services to the government Mr. Payne engaged in railroad, manufacturing, land investments in the West, and other enterprises. His business ventures yielded him a fortune which, at the time of his death, was said to aggregate forty million dollars.

TRADES-UNION CONGRESS AT EDINBURGH.

THOUGH only actual trade-workers or officers of unions were admitted as delegates to the twenty-ninth annual Trades-Union Congress of Great Britain, there were present three hundred and fifty-nine delegates. The congress was held September 7-12 in Edinburgh, Scotland, Mr. E. Cowey, chairman of the Parliamentary Committee, presiding. Mr. E. Cowey having declined reelection to the chairmanship of the Parliamentary Committee of the congress, Mr. Mallison, secretary of the Edinburgh Trades Council, was made his successor. Among the resolutions adopted by the congress were those authorizing the Parliamentary Committee to draft bills, for passage through Parliament, providing for an eight-hour working day in all trades and occupations in the United Kingdom; providing for the safety of employees by making the employer alone responsible for all injuries to employees not caused by the latter's carelessness; the nationalization of "land, mines, minerals, royalty, rents, and railways and the municipalization of all water, artificial light, and tramways' undertakings within their several authorities"; and an age-limit of children employed in factories. It was decided to hold the next congress in Birmingham, England.

The Washington Post. (D. C.)

The program [of the Trades-Union Congress] seems far less radical to the English than to the citizens of this republic. The British Parliament has gone much further in the way of paternal legislation than the Congress of the United States or the legislature of any American state has gone or is likely to go at an early day.

The Denver Republican. (Col.)

Laboring men are disposed to look upon an advocate of labor reform as a hypocrite or demagogue if he does not belong personally to the laboring class. This suspicion is natural—an inheritance through many generations of wrong and oppression. But eventually it will wear away and reform will proceed more rapidly.

The Mail and Express. (New York, N. Y.)

The work apparently mapped out by this congress, whether advisable or ill-judged in detail, is as different in character from the disorderly schemes of the socialists as day is from night.

The Times-Democrat. (New Orleans, La.)

The trade-unionists in Great Britain are very numerous, the rolls showing a strength of several hundred thousand voters. That with all their votes they are not a political power in the country, however, is sufficiently evidenced by the wail that has been raised at several sessions of the congress to the effect that "the government has not only failed to pass any measures in the interest of labor, but has even prevented private members from promoting such measures." A little better organization,

and more of it, would have compelled the government to pass legitimate measures in the interest of labor, and have saved the congress from the necessity of whining over the lack of such legislation.

The Independent. (New York, N. Y.)

The conclusions of the Trades-Union Congress in Edinburgh combined possible and desirable schemes with many that are impossible. We do not believe they are wrong in advocating abolition

of child labor below the age of fifteen, or in asking for an eight-hour day in all trades. Whether tramways, artificial light, etc., should be under municipal control, and land, mines, minerals, rents, railways, etc., under national control, is a very different and vastly larger question. The sweeping character of the reforms demanded must tend to lessen the influence of the movement for measures which might, on a more conservative platform, win support.

ENOCH PRATT.



ENOCH PRATT.

THE millionaire banker and philanthropist, Mr. Enoch Pratt, died on September 17, at his country home near Govanstown, Md. Mr. Pratt was born September 10, 1808, at North Middleborough, Mass. At the age of fifteen he was graduated from the Bridgewater, Mass., Academy and almost directly entered a Boston wholesale dry-goods house as clerk. At the age of twenty-two he left this position and with his accumulated savings of one hundred and fifty dollars began business in Baltimore as a commission hardware merchant. That same year, 1831, he took Mr. Martin Keith as a partner in the hardware business. In 1839 Mr. Pratt married Miss Maria Louise Hyde, who now survives him. In 1842 Mr. Keith was replaced in the firm by Mr. Pratt's brother, David G., and on his death, in 1848, Messrs. Henry Janes and James Hiss were taken into partnership by Mr. Pratt. Mr. Janes was succeeded by his son, H. P. Janes, in 1893. In connection with his hardware business Mr. Pratt became director of the National Farmers and Planters' Bank in 1839 and in 1860 was made its president, which office he held till his death. For several

years prior to his death he served as president of the Baltimore Clearing House, and last April was made president of the Maryland State Bankers' Association, on which occasion he spoke in favor of sound money. Always a Republican, Mr. Pratt was nominated for Congress by Republicans of the fourth district in 1880 and frequently mentioned for the governorship, but he declined both honors. He early became interested in the great highways of travel and commerce and was identified with many southern railways and steamboat lines as director or president. Mr. Pratt's benevolences have been extended to all classes of humanity without distinction of color or creed. Among his most notable works may be mentioned his endowment, in 1867, of \$30,000 to found a free academy at North Middleborough, Mass., his establishment of a House of Reformation for colored children at Cheltenham, Md., and his greatest legacy to the world, the Pratt Library in Baltimore, founded in 1882 at a cost of \$1,145,833.33.

The Independent. (New York, N. Y.)

No man was more honored in Baltimore, which he has made his home since he came to the city, in 1831, with a capital of one hundred and fifty dollars. The multitudes of men who have his spirit are the great honor of our country.

Baltimore Sun. (Md.)

Mr. Enoch Pratt belonged to a class of those public-spirited citizens who have done so much to promote the general welfare of Baltimore, and against whom not one word of reproach can be cast either in their public or private relations. In his busy life he was an example of sturdy, independent American manhood, of keenness as an observer and participant in public affairs, in the soundness of his business judgments, in his remarkable capacity for executive work, and in his great ability to cope with a

multitude of details. It can be said of him that he never shrank from responsibility and that he never threw off the harness until prostrated by his final illness. But there was far more than business pluck and determination in the character of Enoch Pratt. There was in his make-up an underlying and deep tone in sympathy with all who desire to better their condition and to fortify themselves by the acquisition of knowledge. To these ends he gave liberally of his large wealth, adding his time, which to him was of more value than money, and his skill in management. His conception of his duty toward the community in which he lived was liberal and practical, as is evidenced, not only in the foundation of the public library system, but in the public service he was personally willing to render at all times on lines where his own skill and knowledge were useful.

POPE LEO XIII. ON ANGLICAN ORDERS.

AFTER prolonged deliberation Pope Leo XIII. has decided to echo the opinion of his predecessors on the question of the validity of the rites of ordination in the Church of England, known as Anglican orders. Led by Lord Halifax some high ritualists of late years have been working aggressively for the reunion of the Church of England with the Church of Rome, and as their chief obstacle was the failure of the Church of Rome to recognize Anglican orders they appealed to Pope Leo XIII. to reconsider the question. Accordingly on July 16 the pope called a special meeting of the judges of the supreme council to investigate the subject, and on July 18 he issued a pronouncement that "all ordinations made under the Anglican rite are absolutely invalid," and invited the clergy of the Church of England to return to the Catholic fold.

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

It is settled once for all that there will be no corporate reunion of the Church of England to the Church of Rome. The process of incorporation will proceed, as it has hitherto proceeded, by means of individual conversion; and those Anglican clergymen who, after their admission to the Catholic Church, shall wish to exercise ecclesiastical functions, will have to submit to reordination.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

A curious feature of the case is that any considerable number of Anglicans should seriously believe that Pope Leo was at all likely to reverse the judgment of the Roman Church on the question. He could not do so without admitting that the church's previous condemnation of Anglican orders was erroneous; and from the point of view of the church that would be bad policy. It would, in

fact, be a denial of the church's dogma of infallibility in matters relating to faith and morals; and, however progressive Leo may be in matters of policy involving no principle, when it comes to yielding a doctrine that is the logical and necessary outcome of the papal claims he will be found as firm as a rock.

The Independent. (New York, N. Y.)

There may be from among the extreme Ritualists a secession to Rome, somewhat like that of the time of Newman and Manning. But they are not likely to carry congregations with them. They may be notable men, of the type of Lord Halifax and Archdeacon Denison, but comparatively few in number. On the other side, this decision will arouse a new feeling of resentment against the claims of Rome. This encyclical will weaken the Romanizing party in the English Church.

THE G. A. R. ENCAMPMENT.



MAJOR THADDEUS S. CLARKSON.

The New Commander-in-Chief of the G. A. R.

MEMORIES of the Civil War are revived from year to year by the national reunion of the Civil War veterans. Such a gathering was the thirtieth annual encampment of the Grand Army of the Republic, which was held in Saint Paul, Minn., from August 31 to October 4 inclusive. The encampment was opened in the Auditorium with public exercises, Gen. E. C. Mason, president of the Saint Paul Citizens' Committee, presiding. After the opening exercises all were dismissed from the hall except the Grand Army men, who then proceeded to the business of their society. Resolutions were adopted asking preference for capable ex-soldiers in government appointments; petitioning Congress to confer on Gen. Nelson A. Miles the full title of lieutenant general; approving the proposed national parks at Vicksburg and Fredericksburg; recommending the reading of Lincoln's Gettysburg address among the public exercises of Memorial Day; and asking Congress to pass a law against the use of the national flag and coat of arms for advertising purposes. The election and installment of officers took place on the last day of the session as follows; commander-in-chief, Major Thaddeus S. Clarkson,

of Omaha, Neb.; senior vice commander-in-chief, John H. Mullen, of Wabash, Minn.; junior vice commander-in-chief, Chas. W. Buckley, of Montgomery, Ala.; surgeon general, A. E. Johnson, of Washington, D. C.; chaplain-in-chief, the Rev. Mark B. Taylor, of Massachusetts. According to the adjutant general's report the G. A. R. has a total membership of 385,485, of which 340,610 are in good standing. But in spite of 13,467 new comrades mustered into the order during the last year and reinstatements of

13,095 there was a total diminution in strength of 17,029. The amount of new material that can be brought into the order is diminishing, the number of deaths—7,293 last year—is steadily increasing. Buffalo, N. Y., is the place chosen for the next encampment.

The Kansas City Journal. (Mo.)

With the vicissitudes of time the old soldier has not lost that kindly feeling of comradeship arising from mutual hardships on the field. His canteen and his haversack are always ready to relieve the wants of a comrade. In the past twelve months Grand Army posts have expended the sum of \$212,000 in charity, an increase of \$12,000 over the previous year. This large sum went to the relief of the widows and orphans of soldiers and in aid of many a one whose later life has been "writ in our misfortune's book."

The Milwaukee Journal. (Wis.)

Even the march in review is getting irksome to most of them [the veterans], and that too will soon become a thing of the past, to be remembered like their battles and campaigns in their declining years when their decrepit limbs refuse to perform even that small service. Like the pension roll, the muster roll of the Grand Army has reached its maximum, and begun the descent of the slope toward that eternal camping-ground which is occupied by those

who have finished their term of earthly service. They are the Old Guard of the Republic, these warworn and timeworn veterans of the war. They occupy the highest place in the annals of the country, and there can be none higher in the time to come.

The Pioneer Press. (Saint Paul, Minn.)

The world still dreams of universal peace, even while the nations are girding themselves in the panoply of war; and greater armies are kept afoot in peace than in former ages sufficed to determine the issues of the most sanguinary campaigns. It was our nation's experiment with the Grand Army that saved the Union, which taught us how we might continue in safety to dispense with the vast armaments that weigh down the energies of Europe. That experiment taught us that there is no drill so effective in preparing a great army for battle as is the cultivation of the patriotic instinct—of that American feeling which makes every citizen ready to spring to arms in any moment of peril to the nation's flag.

WILLIAM MORRIS.



WILLIAM MORRIS.

THE death of William Morris, the English poet, designer, and printer, which occurred in London on October 3, bereaves the world of one of its distinctively great men. He was born of humble parentage in 1838 at Walthamstow near London, England, and was educated at Marlborough and at Exeter College, Oxford. He aspired to become an artist but finally abandoned his painting for architectural work. In 1858 he made his début in literature as the author of "The Defense of Guenevere and Other Poems." His next venture was in the realm of business. With D. G. Rosetti, Ford Madox Brown, E. Burne-Jones, and others he formed a partnership, in 1863, for artistic designing and the manufacture of such articles as wall paper, stained glass, wooden goods, and household decorations. In this firm he continued his work as a designer almost as long as he lived and on it he depended mostly for his support. His literary work was the fruit of his spare time. "The Life and Death of Jason," a narrative poem, was the first of his writings to win wide public favor. Then followed his best-known effort, "The Earthly

Paradise," published in 1868-70. Three years later appeared "Love is Enough." Conspicuous among his later literary productions are the translations "The Æneid of Virgil Done into English Verse," numerous translations from the Icelandic, "The Glittering Plain," and "News from Nowhere." Since 1888 Mr. Morris has labored to secure artistic beauty in printing and with such success as has made his name honored throughout the world of books. During the last years of his life he has advocated socialism.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

Famous alike as a poet, a designer, and an artistic decorator, he threw in his lot with the socialist party fifteen years ago, making his house at Hammersmith the headquarters for the movement,

which was considered revolutionary and insane. The economic aspects of socialism interested him less than the artistic education of the common people, although he never lacked the courage of his convictions.

The Chicago Record. (Ill.)

Always full of plans, and indefatigable and successful in carrying them into execution, he was anything but idle, though his energies turned for a time from poetry to house decoration and artistic printing, leaving as a result in one case brighter and more beautiful homes in England and in America and in the other treasures of the printer's and book-maker's art which have made the name of the Kelmscott press as famous as that of the Aldine or Elzevir of the Middle Ages. Morris, unlike Tennyson and Matthew Arnold, does not voice the spirit of his time and give it the light and leading of poetical intuition. He has no answer to the sad unrest and questioning of the age, except an impossible turning back to a past that never existed

but in his poetic imaginings. One service, however, he has done for us in poetry. He has caught some echo, at least,

Of lovely things once sung

Beside the sea, while yet the world was young.

The Mail and Express. (New York, N. Y.)

The death in London of William Morris, the famous English poet, again calls attention to the sturdy advocacy of socialism that characterized his long and useful life. There is little doubt that to this advocacy was due his failure last year to secure the laureateship that was captured by far inferior poetic merit. The taint of socialism that clings to his name is not unlikely to be responsible for a certain amount of injustice to a good man and a great poet.

SPAIN'S COLONIAL WARS.

THE opening of the winter campaign in Cuba finds the insurgents recuperated and the Spaniards reinforced. General Weyler, the Spanish leader, still pins his faith on the *trocha* and Gen. Maximo Gomez, commander-in-chief of the rebels, still has his army in two sections, that west of the *trocha* remaining under the leadership of Gen. Antonio Maceo. Advices from Havana, issued under Spanish censorship, record skirmishes innumerable and occasional battles in August and September, in which the Spanish always were victors, but on September 24 is reported the capture by the insurgents of the schooner *Delia*, bringing supplies to the Spanish. It occurred at the mouth of San Juan River, Trinidad, Cuba. On September 26 Spanish troops and Maceo's forces fought near Sagua, in the province of Pinar del Rio. The rebels fled but were met again and defeated in a hot battle. A similar case of Maceo's defeat in two encounters was reported on October 2, the battles occurring near Tombas de Tarino. According to advices of October 3 from Key West, Fla., in a recent attack on the *trocha* General Maceo's forces killed or wounded one thousand Spaniards and captured six pieces of artillery, many thousand cartridges, and several hundred stands of arms. The fighting was fiercest near Artemisa. Advices from Havana report that on September 5, at Guama near Pinar del Rio City, a Spanish column was surrounded by three thousand Cubans sent out by Maceo, when reinforcements came to the rescue. The Spanish escaped and retreated to Cantabria. Here they rallied and advancing defeated the enemy at Loma Blanca. The same advices report the capture of General Maceo's posts in the province of Del Rio.

The insurgents of the Philippine Islands are reported to be gaining ground in the interior and there is a threatened revolt of the Carlists in Spain.

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

We have no doubt that when an opportunity comes the Havana patriots will be heard from. It would be a difficult thing for the revolutionary army to capture Havana by attacking it from the outside; but if, on the other hand, there should be an uprising against Spain in the city, Weyler might have trouble in holding it. Both the Spanish and the Cuban residents of Havana detest the vain and cruel miscreant who rules them.

The Philadelphia Inquirer. (Pa.)

Japan, it is known, has long coveted these rich and fertile islands [the Philippines], and as there are many Japanese who have settled on them and who have had to suffer from Spanish exactions Japan may likely call Spain to account for their harsh treatment. She now holds Formosa, which is half-way between Japan and the Philippines, and her advance on the latter would be a logical one.

Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

Successive dispatches from Cuba by way of Key West—the only way in which news unfavorable to the Spanish cause can be sent—make it reasonably certain that Weyler's grand strategic movement against Maceo, in the western end of the island, has met with ignominious failure. The forces sent against the patriot leader appear to have been not only outgeneraled but outfought, and the effect on the public sentiment of Cuba, the United States, and Europe must be of the utmost importance.

The Times-Democrat. (Jacksonville, Fla.)

The chances are that Maceo wants to get out of Pinar, but is afraid to hazard a stand-up fight with Weyler's vastly superior numbers.

The Kansas City Times. (Mo.)

After eighteen months of warfare the Spaniards have made no substantial progress in putting down the revolution.

The Atlanta Constitution. (Ga.)

That Cuba is able to resist the power of Spain without help from some external source is not even a possibility.

The Times. (Hartford, Conn.)

Some careful observers are satisfied that she [Spain] is losing ground steadily, and will have to lose the island before long. If this comes about she will not merely be deprived of her richest

possession but will be plunged in debt to the verge of bankruptcy. And she will find little sympathy anywhere.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

With a Carlist uprising added to her [Spain's] foreign difficulties there would be hardly anything left in the country worth preserving, except monks and donkeys, neither affording a basis broad enough for a responsible government to repose upon.

GEORGE DU MAURIER.



GEORGE DU MAURIER.

THE artist-novelist George du Maurier died at his home in London on October 8. His full name was George Lewis Palmella Busson du Maurier. Born in Paris on March 6, 1834, of French parentage on his father's side and English on his mother's, he learned to speak both French and English. When two years old he went with his parents to Belgium. At the end of three years they went to London and the next year removed to Boulogne, France. Here they suffered reverses and here were laid the foundations for the artist's book, "Peter Ibbetson." From Boulogne the family returned to Paris, to the same street though not to the same house in which young Du Maurier was born. At the age of thirteen he went to school at the Pension Froussard, in the Avenue, and at seventeen tried in vain for a degree at the Sorbonne. Then he wished to study music but instead his father made him take up chemistry in University College, London. The young man had no taste for chemistry and spent his time in making caricatures. After two years in the college laboratory he was established by his father, in 1854, in a chemical laboratory in Barn's Yard, Bucklersbury, London. The business failed. At his father's death in 1856 Mr. Du Maurier joined his mother in Paris and there studied drawing and painting in Gleyre's studio. He now made friends with Poynter, Whistler, Armstrong, and Lamont, and though in extreme poverty at this time he counts it the brightest period of his existence. After only one year in the *Quartier Latin*, he studied under De Keyer and Van Levis in Antwerp, Belgium. At this place he strained his eyes so that the sight of one was destroyed and the fear of total blindness tormented him all the rest of his days. In 1860 he went to London, taking rooms with Whistler, and made art contributions to *Once a Week*, *Punch*, and other publications. From this time on prosperity attended his efforts. In 1863 he married. The next year he succeeded Mr. Leech on the staff of *Punch*, which position he held at the time of his death. He also became a regular art contributor to *Harper's Magazine*. It was in this magazine that his first work, "Peter Ibbetson," was published, in 1891, appearing as a serial. Then followed "Trilby," in 1894, and his new novel, "The Martian," which has just begun in the same magazine.

Kansas City Times. (Mo.)

In George Du Maurier the world loses one of its most popular authors. Although the greater part of his life was given over to art, in which he achieved a notable success, his greater triumphs in literature showed his true vocation lay there. Du Maurier's writings and drawings are alike marked with unconventionality and warmth. They show his keen observation and his personal interest in life. The unconventionality of style and thought which characterizes his literary work came not from his life as an artist, but rather from his own nature. The personality of Du Maurier was very fascinating. His belief in simplicity kept him young, so that while in "Trilby" he seems to be renewing the emotions

of youth he is really continuing them. His hatreds, moreover, are quite as strong as his loves. Snobishness seems to have been the chief object of his detestation. His satire was veiled with humor and so controlled that it added to the interest and artistic finish of his work.

The Chicago Record. (Ill.)

Frenchman by birth and English by adoption, Du Maurier's peculiar success in literature is not likely to be repeated. Combining the Gallic ease and lightness of touch with thorough appreciation and assimilation of the best English, Du Maurier's stories and sketches almost stand in a class by themselves, partaking of the best of two widely different schools of thought and expression.

The Philadelphia Inquirer. (Pa.)

The death of George Du Maurier, artist and novelist, almost simultaneously with the publication of the first chapters of his new work, "The Martians," will be deeply regretted, not only in the world of arts and letters, but among the great body of the American and English people. For years he was only known as an artist, and that only by a limited number of people in this country. He suc-

ceeded John Leech as satirist of the London *Punch*, and his weekly drawings in that periodical won him fame. The women whom he pictured were the most delightful and lovable creations, while his satires of social foibles were as keen as those of Thackeray and withal as kindly. "Peter Ibbetson" was in many ways a charming story, but it was "Trilby" which gave him notoriety if not fame throughout the English-speaking world.

SUMMARY OF NEWS.

HOME.

September 7. The Letter Carriers' National Convention begins in Grand Rapids, Mich.

September 8. The total number of patents issued during the last fiscal year is 24,585.

September 12. Miss Clara Barton, of the Red Cross Society, arrives in New York, N. Y.

September 14. Messrs. Bryan and Watson are notified of their nomination by the Populists for president and vice president, respectively, the former by a letter from Senator William V. Allen, chairman of the Populist National Convention, and the latter by a letter from Senator Marion Butler, chairman of the Populist Executive Committee.—The National Association of Post Office Clerks meets at Denver, Col.—The Brotherhood of Locomotive Firemen of North America convenes at Galveston, Tex.—The Laundrymen's National Association opens its session at Chicago, Ill.

September 15. The Freight Association of the Southern States declares the rate war ended.—The annual convention of the Railroad Conductors' Association of the United States and Canada begins in Richmond, Va.

September 21. Strikers attack the silver mines at Leadville, Col., with dynamite and all the state militia are ordered out to quell the disturbance.—The American Institute of Mining Engineers begins its seventy-second session in Denver, Col.

September 22. The American Bankers' Association is in session at St. Louis, Mo.—A gift of more than \$2,000,000 is made to Chicago University by Mrs. Julia Bradley, of Peoria, Ill.—A case of leprosy is found in a New York hospital.

September 27. Mount Holyoke College, South Hadley, Mass., is utterly demolished by fire.

October 2. The tidal wave of September 29 that swept the Florida coast drowned many fishermen and destroyed the town of Cedar Keys, Fla.

October 3. J. M. Barrie, the Scotch novelist, lands in New York.

FOREIGN.

September 7. Jacob Gaudaur, of Canada, wins the single-scutt race for the championship of the world, defeating James Stanbury, of Australia.

September 8. Alarmed by the warlike preparations of the Abyssinian king Menelik, Italy has ordered General Baldissera back to Massowah.—The North Sea canal is blocked up by the Danish ship *Johannsim*, which sank at its entrance.

September 9. The Arctic explorer Dr. Fridtjof Nansen arrives on his ship the *Fram* at Christiana, Norway.

September 15. The queen regent of the Netherlands in person opens the States-General.

September 16. The Mexican Congress opens.—The session of the British Association for the Advancement of Science begins in Liverpool.

September 17. Bale St. Paul, Quebec, Canada, is shaken by a strong earthquake.

September 19. The first International Women's Congress is held in Berlin.

September 27. Advices from Shanghai report a spread throughout Thibet of the rebellion against the Chinese government.

September 28. The great engineering work of freeing the Danube River of the obstruction known as the Iron Gates is finished, thus opening the river to navigation from Vienna to the Black Sea.

September 30. About 25,000 coal miners on a strike in Bohemia wreck the buildings of the mining company. Troops are called out to quell the riot.

October 2. In defiance of the British consul at Zanzibar, Saïd Kalid, pretender to the Zanzibar sultanate, has departed from the German consulate and taken refuge on board a German war vessel.

October 5. The Hungarian Diet adjourns in Budapest.—The Dominion Parliament is prorogued in Ottawa.

NECROLOGY.

September 7. Sir Joseph Archer Crow, author and diplomat.

September 10. Luigi Palmieri, Italian meteorologist.

September 11. Prof. Francis J. Child, of Harvard University.—Olaf Laudsem, Norwegian novelist.

September 24. Baron Geer, ex-premier of Sweden.

C. L. S. C. OUTLINE AND PROGRAMS.

FOR NOVEMBER.

OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING.

First Week (ending November 5).

"The Growth of the French Nation." Chapter IX. to page 119.

"French Traits": "Manners."

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"The French Drama in Molière's Time."

"The Survival of Molière's Plays."

Sunday Reading for November 1.

Second Week (ending November 12).

"The Growth of the French Nation." Chapter IX. concluded.

"French Traits": "Women."

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"Les Femmes Savantes."

Sunday Reading for November 8.

Third Week (ending November 19).

"The Growth of the French Nation." Chapter X.

"French Traits": "The Art Instinct."

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"The Women Characters of Molière."

"The Story of Molière's Life."

Sunday Reading for November 15.

Fourth Week (ending November 26).

"The Growth of the French Nation." Chapter XI.

"French Traits": "The Provincial Spirit."

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"L'Avare (The Miser)."

Sunday Reading for November 22.

FOR DECEMBER.

First Week (ending December 3).

"The Growth of the French Nation." Chapter XII.

"French Traits": "Democracy" to page 263.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"The French Character in Politics."

Sunday Reading for November 29.

SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLE WORK.

FIRST WEEK.

CHARLEMAGNE DAY—OCTOBER 30.

He only is great of mind who stirs the world with great thoughts. He only is great of will who does something to shape the world to a great career.

1. Essay—The coronation of Charlemagne; its religious and political significance.
2. Character Sketch—Charlemagne.
3. An Address—The wars in which Charlemagne engaged.
4. A Talk—The capitularies.
5. Essay—The omens which portended the death of Charlemagne.
6. Essay—France in Charlemagne's time.

SECOND WEEK.

1. Roll Call—Each response to be an important fact learned from the lesson of the week.
2. General Discussion—The week's reading in THE CHAUTAUQUAN.
3. Essay—The English drama in the seventeenth century.
4. A Talk—Robert of Artois and his share in bringing on the Hundred Years' War.
5. Historical Study—The battles of Crècy and Calais.
6. Table Talk—Italian influence in Abyssinia.*

THIRD WEEK.

1. Roll Call—Responses to consist of selections from an eminent dramatist.
2. General Discussion—Question: Does the success of a movement depend upon confidence in the leader?
3. The questions on French literature in *The Question Table*.
4. Historical Study—Events which led to the decision of the Diet of Worms.
5. Biographical Sketch—Savonarola.
6. A Talk—The reign of Queen Victoria.*

FOURTH WEEK.

1. General Discussion—The lesson in "French Traits."
2. Biographical Sketch—John Calvin.
3. A Talk—The political element in the Protestant body in France during the period of the religious civil wars.
4. Essay—Mary Stuart and her relation to France.
5. Geographical Study—Marseilles.
6. Discussion—The government of Ireland.*

FOR DECEMBER.

FIRST WEEK.

ST. LOUIS DAY—NOVEMBER 30.

It is good to be just, inasmuch as a reputation for probity and disinterestedness gives a prince more real authority and power than any accession of territories. — *One of St. Louis' Maxims.*

1. Biographical Sketch—St. Louis.
2. Historical Study—The crusades in which St. Louis took part.
3. A Talk—The character of military methods of the Middle Ages as illustrated by the conduct of St. Louis and his army in the crusades.
4. Essay—St. Louis and feudalism.
5. Table Talk—The king's court.

* See *Current History and Opinion*.

C. L. S. C. NOTES AND WORD STUDIES.

ON REQUIRED READING FOR NOVEMBER.

"THE GROWTH OF THE FRENCH NATION."

P. 110. "James van Arteveld" [ar'teh-velt]. A wealthy member of a guild of brewers who gained great influence over the people of Ghent and was chosen by them as their commander in their revolt against the count of Flanders.

P. 114. "Froissart" (1337-1410). A French historian. His greatest work is entitled "Chronicles of France, England, Scotland, and Spain," in which are described the important historical events from 1332 to 1400.

P. 115. "Jacquerie" [zhäk-rē']. This insurrection was so called because the leader, Guillaume Caillet, assumed the name Jacques Bonhomme, "which the barons had long derisively applied to the peasants on account of their meek submission to oppression."

P. 118. "Brétigny" [brä-teen-ye'].

P. 120. "Du Guesclin" [dü gā-klan'].

P. 120. "Castile" [käs-tēl']. An ancient kingdom in the northern and central part of the Iberian, or Spanish, Peninsula.

P. 126. "Armagnacs" [är-män-yäks'].

P. 127. "Great Schism." The division in the Roman Church on account of rival claimants for the papal authority. It continued forty years, from 1378 to 1418.

P. 128. "Agin-court" [ä-zhän-kōōr'].

P. 129. "Troyes" [trwä].

P. 131. "Trémouille" [trā-moo'ye].

P. 134. "Praguerie" [präg-rē'].

P. 141. "Low Countries." A term applied to that part of Western Europe comprising Belgium and the Netherlands, because much of the surface lies below the sea-level.

P. 145. "Machiavellian methods." Methods employed or advocated by Machiavelli, an Italian statesman and writer whose principal work, "Il Principe" (The Prince), shows the author to be without principle in political matters; hence crafty, unscrupulous.

P. 145. "Medici" [med'ē-chē]. "An Italian family which formerly ruled in Florence and Tuscany, celebrated for the number of statesmen which it produced and for its patronage of art and letters."

P. 149. "Marignano" [mä-rēn-yä'nō]. A town a few miles southeast of Milan.

P. 150. "Pragmatic sanction." An ordinance or decree issued by the monarch or legislature of a country upon important subjects of interest to the state. The term seems to have been first applied

to decrees issued by the ruler of the Byzantine Empire.

P. 156. "Rabelais" [rāb-e-lā'] (1495-1553). A French humorist ordained as priest in 1511, but in 1530 he abandoned monastic life and devoted himself to the study of medicine.

P. 157. "Villanage." Servile tenure; the right of holding land on condition of performing menial services.

P. 158. "Vinci" [vin'chē] (1452-1519).—"Cellini" [chel-lē'nē] (1500-1571).

P. 162. "Yuste" [yoos'tā]. This monastery is in western Spain.

P. 169. "L'Hôpital" [lō-pē-tāl']. He was instrumental in procuring the passage of the Edict of Nantes.

P. 170. "Sorbonne." A theological school in the ancient University of Paris, founded by Robert de Sorbonne for the free education of poor students. It became very celebrated and very influential during the Middle Ages in the disputes between the papacy and the civil authorities and in the theological controversies which rent the church.

P. 170. "Vassy" [väs-ē']. A town in eastern France.

P. 177. "Arques" [ärk] and "Ivry" [ēv-rē'] are in northern France.

P. 178. "Satire Ménippée" [sä-tēr' mā-nē-pā']. A contribution to French political literature, consisting of both prose and verse, written by seven men most of whom were lawyers.

"FRENCH TRAITS."

P. 128. "*Politesse de cœur*." Politeness of heart.

P. 130. "Talmud." A name given to a work which contains that part of the Jewish civil and canonical law not embodied in the Pentateuch.

P. 130. "*Concourse hippiques and agronomiques*." Hippic and agricultural meetings.

P. 132. "*Potinière*." Gossiping-place; a term applied to the corner of the Avenue du Bois de Boulogne and the Place de l'Etoile, where people sit and chat while watching the driving.

P. 132. "*Grand siècle*." The great century.

P. 133. "*Donner la réplique*." Giving the reply.

P. 133. "Post-pran'di-al." From *post*, after, and *prandium*, a repast; therefore, after dinner.

P. 133. "*Assomant*." Overwhelming, very tire-some, are the nearest English equivalents.

P. 134. "*Raconteur*." Narrator; story-teller.

P. 137. "Prévost-Paradol" [prā-vo' pä-rä-dol']. A French journalist. He was minister to the

United States in 1870, and committed suicide in Washington, D. C.

P. 137. "*Engouement*." Infatuation.
 P. 138. "*Grossièreté*." Unmannerliness.
 P. 139. "*Théâtre de banlieue*." A suburban theater.

P. 143. "*Délassement*." Relaxation; recreation.
 P. 144. "*Soirées*." Evening parties.
 P. 145. "*Pisalliers*." Makeshifts.
 P. 145. "*Southron*." A native of the southern part of a country; formerly a name applied to the inhabitants of southern Britain; hence an Englishman.

P. 147. "*Malhonnêteté*." Dishonorableness.
 P. 147. "*Convenances*." Propriety; good manners.

P. 149. "*Code Napoléon*." "A compilation of the laws of France made under the auspices of Napoleon Bonaparte, first consul and emperor, promulgated 1804-10."

P. 151. "*En famille*." At home.
 P. 151. "*Longchamps*" [lon-shon']. A fashionable promenade and resort in the Bois de Boulogne, celebrated for its military reviews and horse races.

P. 152. "*Concierger*" [kon-siärzh']. A porter; a door-keeper; in France an attendant at the entrance of a building, private or public.

P. 153. "*Yellowplush*." The *nom de plume* of Thackeray in "*The Yellowplush Memoirs*," published as magazine articles (1837-38).

P. 154. "*Mar'sy-as*." According to Greek mythology, a Phrygian whom Apollo with difficulty defeated in a musical contest of which the Muses were umpires. Apollo was so enraged that he flayed Marsyas alive.

P. 154. "*Dunciad*." The title of a satire written by Pope and directed against contemporary writers.

P. 156. "*Tableau de Paris*." Picture of Paris.
 P. 158. "*Mauvaise honte*." False modesty.
 P. 159. "*Étiolée*." Etiolated; emaciated.
 P. 159. "*Vie*," etc. Feverish and exciting life.
 P. 159. "*Elle*," etc. She was not born yesterday.
 P. 160. "*Mignonne*." Delicate and pretty.
 P. 160. "*Embonpoint*." Corpulence.

P. 161. "*Fausse maigre*" (falsely-appearing thin person) means a small-boned person who is fleshier than she appears at first glance.

P. 161. "*Faubourg St. Germain*." "A once fashionable quarter of Paris, situated on the south bank of the Seine, long noted as the headquarters of the French Royalists."

P. 162. "*Se ranger*." To fall into line.
 P. 165. "*Di Vernon*." The heroine of Scott's "*Rob Roy*," a girl very fond of manly sports.

P. 165. "*Rien que s'entendre*." Merely to understand.

P. 166. "*Le haut du pavé*." The first rank.
 P. 168. "*Équivoque*." Equivocation; ambiguity.

P. 168. "*Double entendre*." Double meaning.

P. 169. "*À deux*." Two.

P. 169. "*Hand passibus aequis*." Not with equal steps.

P. 172. "*Plus de Femme*." No more women.

P. 172. "*Si tu veux*," etc. If you wish to marry, never do that.—That will keep you from marrying.

P. 172. "*Basse classe*." Low class.

P. 174. "*Être incomplet*." Literally, an incomplete being.

P. 174. "*Pays de Gretchen*." Country or home of Gretchen, a German diminutive of Margaret. Gretchen, or Marguerite, in Goethe's "*Faust*" was a simple maiden of lowly birth whose love for Faust developed into a veritable passion.

P. 177. "*Sagasse*." Wisdom; sober-mindedness.—"*Vieille fille*." Old maid.

P. 178. "*Devote*." Devout, devotional.

P. 178. "*Jeune fille*." Young girl.

P. 180. "*Rangé*." Sedate; steady.

P. 181. "*Mariages de convenance*." Marriages of convenience or from interested motives.

P. 189. "*Biez*" [bē-ā'].

P. 189. "*Poussin*" [pōō-san'], a 17th century artist.—"*Jouvenet*" [zhoov-nā].—"*Le Sueur*" [le-sü-ēr'] (1616-1655).—"*Lebrun*" [le-brun'] (1619-1690).—"*Watteau*" [vā-tō'] (1684-1721).—"*Puget*" [pū-zhā] (1622-1694).—"*Goujon*" [goo-zhon'].—"*Mignard*" [mēn-yār'] (1610-1695).—"*Houdon*" [oo-don'] (about 1741-1828).—"*Velasquez*" [vā-lās-kāth].

P. 189. "*Salon carré*." Square salon; one of the art galleries of the Louvre containing some of the choicest specimens of art from all schools.

P. 190. "*Giorgione*" [jor-jō'ne]. An Italian painter of the last quarter of the 15th century.

P. 190. "*Hernani*" and "*Le Roi S'Amuse*" are two works by Victor Hugo.—"*Fra Diavolo*" is a comic opera by Auber and "*Oberon*" is a romantic opera by Von Weber.

P. 190. "*Esprit délicat*." A delicate mind; a delicate, or discriminating, intellect.

P. 191. "*Carpeau*" [kär-pō'].—"*Rude*" [rüde].—"*Barye*" [bä-rē'].—"*Corot*" [kō-ro'].—"*Courbet*" [koor-bā'].—"*Troyon*" [trwä-yōn'].

P. 192. "*Bouguereau*" [boog-rō'].—"*Meissonier*" [mā-sō-nyā'].

P. 194. "*Les incohérents*" (the incoherents) is a name given to the artists who from time to time get up exhibitions of their works which have been rejected at the Salon.

P. 195. "*Protean*." Having the qualities or characteristics of Proteus, a mythical sea god endowed with power to assume different forms at will; hence, changeable, variable.

P. 196. "*Souvenirs de Jeunesse*." Recollections of youth.

P. 196. "*La pénible*," etc. The laborious anvil of the Alexandrine.

P. 197. "*On n'est trahi*," etc. One is betrayed only by one's own.

P. 198. "*Coup-d'œil*." The survey; the view.

P. 199. "*Au naturel*." Dressed; cooked simply.

P. 199. "Tintoretto" [tên-tō-ret'tō]. A Venetian artist of the 16th century.—"*Le roi des fougueux*." The king of the vehement.

P. 199. "*Plein air*." Open air. "A school of modern French painters is called the *plein air* school since it is their creed to paint their pictures in the open air. Thus a projection which, in the studio, would throw a decided shadow is only indicated in a *plein air* picture, a tone-value helping to detach it."

P. 203. "*Je vous*," etc. I give it to you by the thousand.—"*Il n'y a*," etc. There are no more Pyrenees.

P. 203. "Palladian." A style of architecture followed by Palladio, a celebrated Italian architect of the 16th century.

P. 203. "Saint-Saens" [san-son']. A French musician of the present century.—"Berlioz" [bär-lē-ō'] (1803-1869). A French composer.

P. 207. "Impasto." From an Italian word *impastare* to paste; a liberal application of thick paint to a canvas, the object being to give force and solidity to the objects represented and at the same time to produce an harmonious coloring.

P. 209. "Theocritan idyl." The idyls of Theocritus, an idyllic poet of the 3d century, B. C., are of a pastoral nature, representing the life of shepherds and herdsmen.

P. 209. "Titian." A famous Venetian artist of the 16th century.

P. 209. "*Raison d'être*." Reason for existence.

P. 210. "Barmecide banquet." A feast where empty dishes were placed before the guests and everything was imaginary: hence any illusion which tantalizes. This is an "allusion to the story of 'The Barber's Sixth Brother' in 'The Arabian Nights' in which a rich Barmecide gives a dinner of this description to Schacabac, a starving wretch, and obliges him to pretend that he eats what is not before him. When it comes to pretending to drink wine, Schacabac feigns drunkenness and knocks the Barmecide down, and the latter, with a pleasing sense of humor, not only forgives him but heaps benefits upon him."

P. 210. "Piloty" [pēlō-tē]. A German painter of the 19th century.

P. 210. "Dubufe" [dü-büf'].—"Henner" [ên-ā'].—"Detaillé" [almost de-ta'ye].—"Mercié" [mer-syā'].—"Dubois" [dü-bwā'].—"Le-febvre" [le-fāv'r'].—"Barrias" [bä-rē-ā'].

P. 211. "Primaticcio" [prē-mā-tēt'cho]. An Italian painter of the 16th century who was employed by Francis I. as an architect, painter, and sculptor.

P. 213. "Modiste." Milliner.—"*Couturière*." Seamstress.

P. 213. "Incroyables." French meaning literally incredibles. "In France, during the time of the Directory, those who affected a grotesque and extreme foppishness in dress."

P. 214. "Ouvrier." Mechanic, workman.—"*Blanchis seuse*." Washerwoman.—"*Élégante*." Fashionable lady.

P. 214. "Raffiné." Refined.

P. 215. "Saccadé." Abrupt.

P. 217. "Cassandra." According to a Greek legend, a prophetess, the daughter of Priam. Her predictions were true, but by the influence of Apollo whose suit she had disdained they were not believed.

P. 219. "Chauvinism." The principles or sentiments of Chauvin, a French veteran who made a great and absurd display of his admiration for Napoleon I. after the latter's fall: hence a blind devotion to a cause; extravagant patriotism.

P. 221. "Contrat social" [kon-trā' sō-sē-āl']. Social contract. A work of a political nature written by J. J. Rousseau and published in 1762.

P. 222. "*Nouveautés*." Fancy articles.

P. 222. "Geist." Intellect.

P. 224. "Caserne." Barracks.

P. 224. "*Spadassin*." A hector; a bully.

P. 224. "*Avocat*." Barrister; advocate.

P. 226. "*Ipso facto*." In the fact itself.

P. 228. "*Il y*," etc. There was yet France, sir!

P. 232. "*Problèmes de la vie*." Problems of life.

P. 234. "*Fat*." Fop, coxcomb.

P. 234. "*Badaud*." Cockney.

P. 236. "*Credo*." Belief; creed.

P. 237. "*Redivivus*." Living again; renewed, restored.

P. 240. "*Chiaro-oscuro*." The distribution of light and shade in a picture; formerly, a monochrome, the effect of which depended on the contrast of light and dark tints.

REQUIRED READING IN "THE CHAUTAUQUAN."

"THE FRENCH DRAMA IN MOLIERE'S TIME."

1. "Rotrou" [rō-trōō'].

2. "Deux Sosies." Two twins.

3. "Bergerac" [bergh-räk'].

4. "Quinault" [kē-nō'].

5. "Mort de Cyrus." Death of Cyrus.

6. "Œdipe" [ê-dēp'].

7. "La Thébaïde" [tā-bā-ēd'].

8. "Les Plaideurs." The Litigants.

9. "Brecourt" [brā-koor'].—"D'Hauteroche" [dōt-rosh'].—"Poisson" [pwā-son'].

10. "Chappuzeau" [shāp-pü-zō'].—"Boursault" [bōor-sō'].—"Donneau de Visé" [dō-nō' de vē-zā'].—"Montfleury" [mon-fluh-rē'].

11. "Lulli" [lū-lē].
12. "Polyeucte" [pō-lē-ēkt].
13. "Le menteur." The Liar.
14. "Ingénue." Artless person.
15. "Furetière" [fūr-tyār].

"THE SURVIVAL OF MOLIÈRE'S PLAYS."

1. "Tartuffe" [tār-tūf]. The Hypocrite.
2. Colly Cibber [sib'er] (1671-1757). An English actor and writer of dramas.
3. "L'Étourdi." The Giddyhead.
4. "Le Dèpit Amoureux." The Lovers' Quarrel.
5. "Le Bourgeois Gentilhomme." The Shopkeeper Turned Gentleman.
6. "L'École des Maris." The School for Husbands.
7. "L'École des Femmes." The School for Wives.
8. "Le Mariage Forcé." The Forced Marriage.
9. "Les Précieuses Ridicules." The Affected Ladies.
10. "Le Médecin Malgré Lui." The Physician in Spite of Himself.
11. "Le Malade Imaginaire." The Imaginary Invalid.
12. "L'Avare." The Miser.
13. "Coquelin" [kōk-lan].
14. "Les Femmes Savantes." The Learned Women.
15. "Les Fourberies de Scapin." The Impostures of Scapin.
16. "L'Amour Médecin." Love as a Doctor.

"LES FEMMES SAVANTES."

1. "Trissotin" [trē-sō-tan].
2. "Ménage" [mā-nāzh]. A French philologist of the 17th century.
3. "Bélise" [bā-lēz].—"Chrysale" [krē-zāl].
4. "Philaminte" [fēl-ā-mant].
5. "Vaugelas" [vōzh-lā] (1585-1650). A celebrated French grammarian. One of the first members of the French Academy.
6. "Précieuses." Affected persons.
7. "Peri-pa-tet-i-cism." The philosophy taught by Aristotle and his disciples, who were called peripatetics from their habit of walking about while teaching or lecturing.
8. The "doctrine of atoms" or the atomic philosophy taught that everything is composed of indivisible particles called atoms, from the various combinations and movements of which all things, including the human mind, originated.
9. The theory of "vortices" by which Descartes explained the motions of the heavenly bodies was the conception that atoms of ordinary matter, having a rotary motion about an axis, are vortices in an ethereal fluid, the whirling motion of which produces the revolution of the planets.

"THE WOMEN CHARACTERS OF MOLIÈRE."

1. "Harpagon" [ār-pā-gōn].
2. "Cléonte" [klā-ōnt].
3. "Mme. Jourdain" [zhoor-dan]. —
4. "Ascagne" [äs-kāñ; ñ has the sound of *n* and *y* blended as in *cañon*].
5. "Célimène" [sā-lē-mān].
6. "Arsinoé" [ār-sīn-ō-ē].
7. "Béjart" [bā-zhār]. One of a family of comedians who belonged to Molière's troupe.
8. "Suivante." Female attendant.
9. "Alcmène" [alk-mān].
10. "Comtesse d'Escarbagnas" [kōn-tēs' des-kār-bān-yā].
11. "Preciosity" [prēsh-i-ōs'i-ty]. Fastidiousness.
12. "Gorgibus" [gor-zhē-būs].
13. In the Roman calendar the "ides" [idz] was the 15th day of March, May, July, and October and the 13th day of the other months. The first day of the month was the "kalends."

"THE STORY OF MOLIÈRE'S LIFE."

1. "Villon" [vē-yōn] (1431-1484). An early French poet.—"Regnard" [ren-yār] (1655-1709). An author of comedies.—"Beaumarchais" [bō-mār-shā] (1732-1799). A dramatic writer.—"Béranger" [bā-ron-zhā] (1780-1857). A lyric poet.—"Scribe" [skrēb] (1791-1861). A dramatist.
2. "Tapissier." An upholsterer; a tapestry-worker.
3. "Ag'ora." A place where questions of public interest were discussed, especially the market place, in an ancient Greek city.
4. "Enfants sans Souci." A society of young men from good families who devoted themselves to the representation of the drama.
5. "Sots." The members of the company engaged in playing the *sotie*.
6. "Soties." Satirical dramas usually of a political nature played in France in the 15th and 16th centuries.
7. "Garnier" [gär-nyā] (1534-1590).
8. "Mairet" [mā-rā] (1604-1686).
9. "Turlupin" [tūr-lū-pān]. A comedian.—"Gros" [grō].—"Guillaume" [gē-yōm].—"Gaultier Gurguille" [gō-tē-ā' gūr-gē'ye].
10. "Thespis." An Attic poet of the 6th century B. C., who is said to have been the founder of tragedy.
11. "Scar-a-mouch." A typical personage in ancient Italian comedy characterized by bravado and buffoonery. It is supposed to have been introduced into France by Scaramuccia, an Italian zany.
12. "Esprit Gaulois." The Gallic spirit.
13. "De Rerum Natura." On the Nature of Things. It is a didactic poem of 7,400 lines explaining the atomic theory of the universe.

14. "Rocroy" [rō-krwā']. A French town near the Belgian line.
15. "*Tapissier, valet de chambre du roi.*" Upholsterer, the king's valet.
16. "*Bourgeois de Paris.*" Citizen of Paris.
17. "Le Châtelet" [shāt-lā']. In medieval times the city prison of Paris.
18. "*Wanderjahre.*" Years of wandering. "Wilhelm Meister's Wanderjahre" is the title of a novel by Goethe.
19. "*Seigneurial salon.*" Manorial drawing-room.
20. "Barbieri" [bār-bē-ā'rē]. "Secchi" [sek'kē].
21. "*Annus mirabilis.*" Wonderful year.
22. "Guido" [gwē'dō] (1575-1642). An Italian painter who executed the celebrated fresco "Aurora" in the Rospigliosi palace in Rome.
23. "*Impresario.*" Italian. Stage-manager; an agent or leader of an operatic troupe.
24. "*Rien ne manque,*" etc. Nothing is wanting to his glory but he was wanting to ours.

"L'AVARE (THE MISER)."

1. "*Quid pro quo.*" Latin. One thing for another.
2. "*Reductio ad absurdum.*" Latin. Reduction to an absurdity.
3. "Laocoön" [lā-ōk'ō-on]. See "A History of Greek Art," pages 264 and 265.

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS.

ON THE C. L. S. C. TEXT-BOOKS.

"THE GROWTH OF THE FRENCH NATION."

1. Q. What period of French history does the accession of Philip VI. open? A. The Hundred Years' War with England.
2. Q. What two things were especially influential in bringing on this war? A. The occupation of large provinces by a foreign power and the peculiar position of Flanders.
3. Q. How did Philip VI. open his reign? A. By winning the victory of Cassel.
4. Q. In what interest was the first action of the count of Flanders? A. In the interest of commerce.
5. Q. What was the first open fighting of the war? A. The successful attack of Edward's fleet upon the French blockading force on the coast of Flanders.
6. Q. What opportunity was thus offered Edward of England? A. An opportunity to invade France through Flanders.
7. Q. When and with what event did the war really begin? A. In 1346, with the invasion of Normandy by Edward III.
8. Q. Why did France suffer so many defeats in this war? A. Because she was fighting in the old feudal style against more modern tactics and modern weapons.
9. Q. What two causes of disorder peculiar to this war added much to the suffering in France produced by these campaigns? A. The idleness of the mercenary troops and the insurrections of the peasants.
10. Q. What in the reigns of Philip and John were prophetic of the change in the constitutional development of the country? A. The financial reforms demanded by the Estates-General.
11. Q. In what were these demands embodied? A. In the Great Ordinance of 1357.
12. Q. What were the results of the treaty of Brétigny? A. Edward gave up his claim to the French crown; he received in full sovereignty nearly the whole of the old inheritance of Eleanor; and King John was to be released from captivity.
13. Q. How did the civil wars in Castile aid King Charles? A. They enabled him to get rid of the "great companies" and involved Edward the Black Prince in exhausting military expeditions.
14. Q. What was the great work of the reign of Charles V.? A. The development of a national system of taxation and the organization of the army.
15. Q. During the reign of Charles VI. to what were the national disasters due? A. To civil strife.
16. Q. Between what two parties was there a great strife? A. Between that of the duke of Burgundy and that of the duke of Orleans.
17. Q. Why did the English cease their invasions of France for a time? A. On account of domestic troubles.
18. Q. By whom were the invasions renewed and what important battle was the result? A. By Henry IV.; the battle of Agincourt.
19. Q. Who assumed the leadership of the nation during the siege of Orleans? A. Joan of Arc.
20. Q. What was the result of her campaign? A. The success of the French and the crowning of the dauphin as King Charles VII.
21. Q. In the reorganization of the government what was the greatest work accomplished by Charles VII.? A. The establishment of a standing army and of a permanent system of taxation.
22. Q. After the reign of Charles VII. what is the chief issue in the political history of France? A. The struggle for supremacy in Europe.
23. Q. What great danger yet remained? A. The threatening position occupied by the duke of

Burgundy, who was attempting to form an independent state.

24. Q. How was this danger overcome? A. After the death of Charles the Bold in a battle, King Louis seized Burgundy.

25. Q. What other territory was annexed to France during the reign of Louis XI.? A. The county of Provence, and Roussillon.

26. Q. Into whose hands did the government fall after the death of Louis XI.? A. Into the hands of Anne of Beaujeau.

27. Q. What was the effect upon France of the relation to Italy established by Charles VIII.? A. It caused many wars.

28. Q. When did Charles enter Italy and what was the result? A. In 1495; a rapid rise and fall of his power.

29. Q. What was the condition of affairs in France during the reign of Louis XII.? A. Prosperous, though he was involved in wars with Italy.

30. Q. What long rivalry really began during the reign of Francis I.? A. The duel between France and the house of Hapsburg for supremacy in Europe.

31. Q. What was the result of the Concordat arranged by Francis I. and Pope Leo X.? A. It destroyed the independence of the French Church in the interest of the financial necessities of the pope and of the absolutist principles of the king.

32. Q. What was the object of the Pragmatic Sanction of Bourges? A. To secure the independence of the pope.

33. Q. In what way was the dispute between church and state disposed of? A. The Church of France was put under the king's control.

34. Q. What was the traditional policy of the popes? A. To prevent the growth of any state in Italy which would be strong enough to threaten the independence of their own little kingdom, the states of the church.

35. Q. What was the outcome of the alliance between Leo and Emperor Charles? A. The decision of the Diet of Worms and the driving of the French from Italy.

36. Q. By what war was an opportunity given to Henry II. to extend the French frontier in the valley of the Rhine? A. The religious civil war in Germany.

37. Q. What did the first annexation by France of German territory toward the Rhine include? A. Metz, Toul, and Verdun.

38. Q. To what did the demand for a reformation give rise? A. In one direction to the Protestant Reformation; in another to ecclesiastical reform, stimulated by rebellion in the Catholic Church.

39. Q. Who was a prominent leader in the French Reformation? A. John Calvin.

40. Q. To what class of people did the French Protestants belong? A. To the middle and higher classes.

41. Q. Of what two elements was the Protestant body composed? A. Of a religious and a political element.

42. Q. Into what two factions was the country divided? A. The Protestant and Bourbon and the Catholic with the Guises at its head.

43. Q. What was the first open act in the civil wars? A. The conspiracy of Amboise.

44. Q. What noted woman had great power during this period? A. Catherine de Medici.

45. Q. How many years did the struggle continue? A. Thirty-five.

46. Q. What event changed the whole situation? A. The sudden death of Henry III., which brought up the question of succession to the throne.

47. Q. When did the war close? A. In 1598 with the Edict of Nantes.

48. Q. What was one result of this edict? A. It secured to the Huguenots toleration throughout France.

"FRENCH TRAITS."

1. Q. What is the most highly characteristic feature of French manners? A. The lack of personality.

2. Q. How do foreigners invariably regard French politeness? A. As incurably artificial.

3. Q. In manners as understood by the Frenchman what is illustrated? A. His ideal and aspirations in an absolutely impersonal sphere, where what serves as stimulus and all that is at stake are the sense of external propriety and the artistic fitness of things.

4. Q. In what two arts do Frenchmen excel all peoples? A. In comedy and conversation.

5. Q. Why are these particularly adapted to French excellence? A. Because of their intimate and inextricable connection with manners.

6. Q. How is French conversation described? A. As being social and artistic, never personal and utilitarian.

7. Q. What is an eminent characteristic of both written and spoken French? A. Precision.

8. Q. What do French manners include? A. A great deal of compliment.

9. Q. Of what nature is the compliment? A. Sincere.

10. Q. Upon what is the mistrust of French society based? A. Upon the fact that French manners are studied, artificial, and conventional.

11. Q. What is the end and aim of French society? A. Human intercourse.

12. Q. How were French women described in a popular work about a century ago? A. "French women are remarkable for piercing, mischievous

eyes, elegant figures, and sprightly countenances, but fine heads are very rare among them."

13. Q. What quality of the French woman do Americans consider a fault? A. Coquetry.

14. Q. What is French coquetry? A. The science of charm in woman.

15. Q. To what do the women of France devote much of their attention? A. To the toilet.

16. Q. Who constitute the great bulk of the feminine portion of French society? A. Married women.

17. Q. How does our conception of marriage differ from the French? A. We conceive it sentimentally and they as an affair of reason.

18. Q. In art for what do the French care most? A. For the true rather than the beautiful.

19. Q. What is the result of this devotion to the true? A. Sentimental and poetical peoples have hitherto surpassed the French in art.

20. Q. What qualities of art as represented in M. Meissonier appeal to the French? A. Sanity, flawless workmanship, thoroughly adequate expression of a wholly clear and dignified pictorial motive.

21. Q. In what departments does the French artist excel? A. Every department of artistic effort where training is salutary and education possible.

22. Q. By what is perfectly impersonal art marked? A. By convention.

23. Q. Of what is convention the implacable enemy? A. Of poetry.

24. Q. By what is French art naturally characterized? A. By style rather than substance.

25. Q. From what do French culture and artificiality save art? A. From that spontaneity which ends in sterility.

26. Q. What sins are most shocking to the French sense? A. Offenses against taste.

27. Q. What is a conspicuous characteristic of the French considered as a nation? A. Egotism.

28. Q. In what way has the provincial spirit proved detrimental to France? A. By causing a neglect of the practice of industrialism.

29. Q. What is the nature of French provincialism? A. It is remarkably candid, rational, and impersonal.

30. Q. In what way is the provincial spirit peculiar? A. Its manifestations are national and not individual.

31. Q. To what is the religious homogeneity of French society attributable? A. To the massacre of St. Bartholomew and the revocation of the Edict of Nantes.

THE QUESTION TABLE.

ANSWERS IN NEXT NUMBER.

FRENCH LITERATURE.—II.

1. In what form does the literature of a country first appear? —

2. What period has been called a dead season in French literature?

3. Who was the author of the "Chronicles of France"?

4. What French song was sung at the head of the army of William the Conqueror during his conquest of England?

5. Who wrote "Télémaque" and what was the fate of the author?

6. What famous poet of the sixteenth century was given the name of *La belle cordière* (The pretty rope-maker)? Why was she so called?

7. Who was the Barber Poet of Agen?

8. By whom was his masterpiece translated into English?

9. For what writing was Pascal famous?

10. Who is the author of the following: "I will take care if possible that my death shall say nothing that my life has not said"? —

FRENCH HISTORY.—II.

1. By whom was cenobitical life introduced west of the Alps?

2. When and where was the first monastery of Gaul founded?

3. By whom and when were promulgated the statutes which gave rise to the order of the Benedictines?

4. What improvements were made in Paris by Philip Augustus?

5. In French history what is the most remarkable period of the Middle Ages?

6. Who was the great revolutionist of this period?

7. What important innovation was made in the church during this period?

8. With what weapons were the English armed at the battle of Crécy?

9. What demand was made by King Edward at the surrender of Calais?

10. What was the result of this demand?

ASTRONOMY.—II.

1. By what name did the ancient astronomers call the planets?

2. What is a planet?

3. What are the names of the planets in the order of their distance from the sun, beginning with the one nearest to the sun?

4. What is an inferior planet? A superior planet?
5. Which of the planets are inferior?
6. What is a satellite?
7. By what names are satellites frequently called?
8. How many satellites have been discovered?
9. To what planets do they belong?
10. In what direction do the satellites revolve round their primaries?

CURRENT EVENTS.—II.

1. When did the Italians take possession of Massowah?
2. Where is Massowah?
3. What name has been given to the Italian colony in Africa? How long has this been the official name?
4. Whom did Queen Victoria succeed to the throne of England?
5. The reign of what English sovereign almost equaled that of the present queen?
6. What title besides that of queen does the present sovereign of Great Britain bear? When did she assume it?
7. What living ruler has second place in regard to length of reign?
8. When was the Irish Parliament dissolved?
9. What was the "Act of Union" and when did it go into effect?
10. Since when has the party of Home Rulers been an important factor in the House of Commons?

ANSWERS TO QUESTIONS IN "THE CHAUTAUQUAN"
FOR OCTOBER.

FRENCH LITERATURE.—I.

1. Epic or narrative poetry. 2. A narrative poem dealing with French history usually written in decasyllabic verses of various lengths, each stanza possessing an assonance or rhyme in the last syllable. 3. In the eleventh century. 4. More than three centuries. 5. War with the Saracens. 6. Spanish, English, Italian, German, and Danish. 7. "The Holy Grail" in the "Idylls of the King." 8. The "Roman du Renart" (Reynard the Fox). 9. The

"Roman de la Rose" (Romance of the Rose), begun by William of Lorris and finished by Jean de Meung. 10. Chaucer.

FRENCH HISTORY.—I.

1. Three or four hundred. 2. The Iberians; the Basque; in the region of the Pyrenees both on the French and Spanish sides. 3. The Druids and the nobles; the mass of the people were little better than slaves. 4. Eight years. 5. Mining, manufacturing in gold, silver, and iron, welding tin to copper, weaving, knitting, and agriculture. 6. About the year 600 B. C. 7. Because it furnished Rome an opportunity to secure an overland route from Italy to Spain. 8. Aëtius. 9. The worship of Odin, the god of the Scandinavians. 10. The difference of conditions and customs which prevailed in them, Roman in one and German in the other.

ASTRONOMY.—I.

1. It is the oldest of the sciences. 2. The Chinese, Hindus, Egyptians, Chaldeans, and Greeks. 3. China; "The Son of the Sun." 4. The Greeks. 5. The same as the latitude of a place. 6. None has been discovered. 7. About one degree. 8. An imaginary circle of the celestial sphere drawn at such a distance from the pole that it touches the horizon; all the stars within the circle never set. 9. By Thales about 600 B. C. 10. The sun, moon, Mercury, Venus, Mars, Jupiter, and Saturn.

CURRENT EVENTS.—I.

1. To any clergyman bearing an official appointment in a principal church. The purple mantle, scarlet hat, and ring of sapphire set in gold. 2. John McClosky. 3. In the cathedral at Baltimore, Md., January, 1896. 4. Baron Fava. 5. In 1891, after the New Orleans tragedy. 6. Secretary of the interior; secretary of state, postmaster-general, and attorney-general. 7. That of the Greek Church. 8. By the Phrygians, Pelasgians, and the Phenicians. 9. The island of a hundred cities because of its large population. 10. The Anglo-German agreement of 1886, renewed a few years later, by which Great Britain and Germany secured an influence over certain portions of Zanzibar.

THE C. L. S. C. CLASSES.

1882-1900.

CLASS OF 1897.—"THE ROMANS."
"Veni, Vidi, Vici."

OFFICERS.

President—Judge C. H. Noyes, Warren, Pa.

Vice Presidents—Rev. W. P. Varner, Bolivar, Pa.; Mrs. A. E. Barber, Bethel, Conn.; Miss Jessie Scott, Miss.; Mrs. G. B. Driscoll, Sidney, Ohio; Prof. Wm. E. Waters, Wells College, Aurora, N. Y.; A. A. Stagg, Chicago, Ill.; Mrs. Carrie V.

Shaw-Rice, Tacoma, Wash.; Rev. James Ellsworth Coombs, Victoria, B. C.; Miss Emily Green, South Wales, N. Y.
Secretary—Miss Eva M. Martin, Chautauqua, N. Y.
Treasurer and Trustee—Shirley P. Austin, Pittsburg, Pa.

CLASS EMBLEM.—IVY.

THE staying qualities of certain Massachusetts members of the Class of '97 are shown in a recent

report from a circle at Haverhill whose thirteen members all belong to the Class of '97 and in honor of their class name call themselves the Roman Club.

AN interesting letter has been received from the Pierian Circle, at Stillwater, Minn. The members of this circle do not belong to any one C. L. S. C. class and from the nature of things many of them do not finish the course and graduate, but much good work has been accomplished.

THE fourth year of the Class of '97 will prove the mettle of the class, which is certainly of the best, when we consider that it was born in the panic year and begins its fourth year's work without waiting for the inspiration to be expected from the election on November 3. The Romans, true to their name, have proved themselves conquerors, and every member is urged to be ready to receive his well-earned laurels in the coming summer of '97.

CLASS OF 1898.—"THE LANIERS."

"The humble life that lives may be divine."

OFFICERS.

President—Dr. W. G. Anderson, New Haven, Conn.

Vice Presidents—Mrs. Frances R. Ford, Troy, N. Y.; Mrs. W. V. Hazeltine, Jamestown, N. Y.; Mrs. W. T. Gardner, S. H. Clark, Chicago, Ill.; Dr. J. M. Buckley, New York, N. Y.

Secretary and Treasurer—Mrs. S. H. Anderson, Cleveland, Ohio.

CLASS FLOWER—VIOLET.

A MEMBER of '98 from Chicago sends her fee for the coming year, expressing her great interest in the readings and her hope to be able to complete the four years' course. Members of the class who were present at Chautauqua this summer had the great pleasure of meeting Mrs. Sidney Lanier, the wife of the poet for whom the class was named. Mrs. Lanier gave several readings from the poems of Sidney Lanier and made many friends during her stay at Chautauqua.

A REQUEST has come from one of the southern Assemblies that the class color shall be changed from olive to violet as the latter would seem more appropriate in view of the class flower. The olive green is, however, a beautiful shade which blends very effectively with almost any color. This request will be considered by the class in its meetings next summer and any members who would like to express an opinion are requested to send correspondence to this effect to the class secretary.

AN interesting letter comes from a member of the class in Kansas. She writes: "My work this year has been attended with some difficulties, but money could not buy the pleasure and profit it has given me during the past two years. It is such an inspiration to a mother of three children who are all attending school and full of questions on history, literature, and current events. I sometimes indulge in the dream of going to Chautauqua in 1898 and thus receiving my diploma in my own native state."

CLASS OF 1899.—"THE PATRIOTS."

"Fidelity, Fraternity."

OFFICERS.

President—John C. Martin, New York, N. Y.

Vice Presidents—The Rev. Cyrus B. Hatch, McKeesport, Pa.; Charles Barnard, New York, N. Y.; Frank G. Carpenter, Washington, D. C.; John Brown, Chicago, Ill.; Charles A. Carlisle, South Bend, Ind.; Edward Marsden, Alaska; William Ashton, Uxbridge, Eng.; Miss Alice P. Haworth, Osaka, Japan; Miss Frances O. Wilson, Tien-Tsin, China; Mrs. Katharine L. Stevenson, Chicago, Ill.

Secretary—Miss Isabella F. Smart, Brielle, N. J.

Treasurer and Building Trustee—John C. Whiteford, Mexico, N. Y.

CLASS EMBLEMS—THE FLAG AND THE FERN LEAF.

CLASS COLOR—BLUE.

MEMBERS of the Class of '99 are reminded that the membership fee is an annual one and by sending the new year's fee promptly to John H. Vincent, Buffalo, N. Y., they will receive the new membership book, which is a most attractive little pamphlet and will be found of the greatest service to every member of the Patriot Class. The little review text-book on French history is of great value to the student of Professor Adams' "Growth of the French Nation" and members of the class who found pleasure in the American history text-book last year will be glad of the added help for the course of '96-97. Let all members of the class enroll early and let no one fall by the way.

A POSTAL from a member in Tien-Tsin, China, reports the first year's work completed. If a missionary member in so discouraging a field as that of China must have been during the past year can carry through the first year's work with so much success, other members of the class under more favorable circumstances may well take heart and do likewise. Any who may be a little behind with the first year's reading should remember our motto, "Never be discouraged," and start out the new year on time and finish up the arrears during the coming nine months.

A MEMBER of the class in Ohio alludes to the fact that although he is a graduate of Oberlin College he finds the course most refreshing.

CLASS OF 1900.—"THE NINETEENTH CENTURY CLASS."

"Faith in the God of truth; hope for the unfolding centuries; charity toward all endeavor."

OFFICERS.

President—Rev. Dr. Nathaniel I. Rubinkam, Chicago, Ill.

Vice Presidents—J. F. Hunt, Chautauqua, N. Y.; Morris A. Green, Pittsburg, Pa.

Secretary—Miss Mabel Campbell, Cohoes, N. Y.

CLASS EMBLEM—EVERGREEN.

THE president of the Class of 1900 sends greetings to his fellow-classmates the world over. At the University Congregational Church in Chicago, of which he is pastor, a Vesper Service was held in

September and a rally the following evening. In spite of the stormy weather forty members joined the Class of 1900 at that time with the prospect of many additions. Mr. W. R. Mitchell of the Hyde Park high school is secretary of the circle and these new Chautauquans are starting on the four years of work with much enthusiasm. The class is adding rapidly to its membership and the states are vying with each other in showing good results.

A PROBABLE member of the new class sends the following letter which will be of interest to other members of the class. This applicant writes: "After many years of trials, disappointments, and vain endeavors to secure a college education I have accidentally found a friend in the Chautauqua movement. For a time the beauty and possibilities of such a course blinded me, but now that I have read of the work carefully I feel that all is not lost, and that not alone in college halls may scholars be made, but that every day and every hour may help build up an education if only we are wisely directed."

ANOTHER member of the class who writes from the Northwest Territory in Canada hopes to form a circle in the town of Moose Jaw, where he makes his home. There are splendid facilities in the community for a good circle and the class will heartily welcome this little company from this far-away outpost in Canada.

A MEMBER from a distant army fort in North Dakota, the chaplain of the post, a former graduate of Amherst, sends his name for the new class.

THE new membership books of '96-97 are being mailed to every member of the class as rapidly as the names are received. Any who fail to receive them promptly should communicate at once with the office at Buffalo.

WHEN this number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN reaches the members of the Class of 1900 many will have had a month's experience in Chautauqua work. To some it will be an entirely new kind of life and should any such feel discouraged at their seemingly slow progress let them be reminded that new habits are not formed in a day, but that if the effort to grapple with the subjects of a study be continued faithfully the mind will grow stronger with each attempt and the student will find that he is gaining power steadily, even though at first he may not be conscious of it.

GRADUATE CLASSES.

DIPLOMAS have been mailed to all members of the Class of '96 whose reports have reached the Buffalo office. Any persons who have failed to receive them are asked to communicate the fact at once to the C. L. S. C. office so that any mistake may be rectified.

MANY graduates are showing a commendable interest in the seal courses. A special circular to graduates has recently been sent out by the central office at Buffalo suggesting plans which may be followed in order to develop the work in many communities. Special efforts are being put forth this year to establish graduate circles for the study of special courses or, where this does not seem feasible, to effect an organization of graduates which shall become a permanent center for Chautauqua work. Under such an organization the graduates would hold an annual meeting and use their influence to encourage undergraduates to complete the course and to persuade new recruits to join.

THE course in Current History and Opinion is receiving a large number of students and is deservedly popular since it helps wonderfully to keep busy people in touch with current events, at the same time doing away with the necessity for too much newspaper reading.

MANY other interesting and valuable courses will be found in the new edition of the special course hand-book, which can be secured at any time from the C. L. S. C. office at Buffalo by sending a two-cent stamp.

CLASS OF 1888.—"THE PLYMOUTH ROCK."

"Let us be seen by our deeds."

OFFICERS. (*Corrected List.*)

President—Rev. A. E. Dunning, D.D., Boston, Mass.

Vice Presidents—S. C. Johnson, Racine, Wis.; Mrs. George B. McCabe, Toledo, Ohio; Mrs. D. A. Cunningham, Wheeling, W. Va.; W. S. Wight, Lakewood, O.; Mrs. J. W. Selvage, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Mrs. J. E. Bookstaver, Syracuse, N. Y.; Rev. H. L. Brickett, Marion, Mass.; Rev. D. L. Martin, Leroy, N. Y.

Secretary—Miss Belle Douglass, Syracuse, N. Y.

Treasurer and Class Trustee—Russell L. Hall, New Canaan, Conn.

Class Chronicler—Mrs. A. E. Teller, Brooklyn, N. Y.

Class Poet—Miss Robertine W. Brown, Brooklyn, N. Y.

CLASS COLOR—GRAY.

CLASS FLOWER—GERANIUM.

LOCAL CIRCLES.

C. L. S. C. MOTTOES.

"We Study the Word and the Works of God."

"Let us Keep our Heavenly Father in the Midst."

"Never be Discouraged."

C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS.

OPENING DAY—October 1.
BRYANT DAY—November, second Sunday.
MILTON DAY—December 9.
COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.
LANIER DAY—February 3.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.
LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.

SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.
ADDISON DAY—May 1.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.
INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Saturday after first Tuesday.
ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first Tuesday.

SPECIAL MEMORIAL DAYS FOR 1896-97.

CHARLEMAGNE DAY—October 30.
"SAINT LOUIS" DAY—November 30.
JOAN OF ARC DAY—December 4.
RICHELIEU DAY—January 4.

HOMER DAY—February 12.
SOCRATES DAY—March 5.
EPAMINONDAS DAY—April 24.
PHIDIAS DAY—May 24.

WHAT OUR SECRETARIES ARE DOING.

THE new French-Greek year opens with bright prospects in all parts of the country. The state and county secretaries are busily at work and thousands of volunteers are scattering circulars and making their influence felt for the Class of 1900. The class received a splendid start at the summer Assemblies, and in spite of the widespread election excitement and financial depression interest in the Chautauqua work is wonderfully strong. Pastors are making use of the opportunity to hold Vesper Services and on the last Sundays in September and early in October a large number of churches observed a Chautauqua Evening and sermons were preached for the purpose of arousing people to make the best use of their opportunities for intellectual growth. Fully one hundred thousand people will take part in these Chautauqua Vesper Services during the early weeks of this fall.

Mr. Wm. G. Lightfoote, secretary for Ontario County, N. Y., who spent two weeks at Chautauqua, supplied the pulpit of his church during the temporary absence of the pastor one Sunday morning and at his request presented the subject of the religious work of Chautauqua. The new Hall of the Christ was alluded to and extracts from Chancellor Vincent's sermon before the graduating class were read. The congregation made use of the well-known Chautauqua hymn "Just for To-day." The service while bearing especially on the religious side of Chautauqua gave an opportunity to show also how the educational features of the Assembly are closely linked with its religious life.

The New York City Union anticipates an active year. They have already arranged for a course of lectures and entertainments designed to draw Chautauquans together and develop a feeling of common interest, and special efforts will be made to reach the city pastors. A new circle of large pro-

portions is likely to be formed in the Metropolitan Tabernacle under the leadership of the Rev. S. P. Cadman, the pastor of the church, and other pastors are also developing interest in other parts of the city.

A new movement in the region of Philadelphia promises to grow into an Assembly not many miles from that city. Special interest has been felt for some time by the Chautauquans of Sellersville who are developing their county organization and hope to add largely to the membership of the C. L. S. C. in the surrounding territory. This new center of interest with the recently established Eagle's Mere Chautauqua in northeastern Pennsylvania promises new strength to Chautauqua work in this section of the state.

Mr. Arthur Marvin, president of the New Haven Chautauqua Union, reports a movement on the part of the graduates in that city to form a special organization taking up the study of some of Shakespeare's plays. At least five undergraduate circles in that city have reorganized and it is proposed to establish a new circle in connection with the Young Men's Republican Club, though this may have to be deferred until after election. A Chautauqua Vesper Service is one feature of the fall rally in New Haven.

An Assembly at Lancaster, Ohio, which has recently added a Chautauqua Recognition Day to its calendar, is becoming an important center of influence in southern Ohio. Rev. Willis V. Dick, superintendent of the Assembly, is serving also as Chautauqua secretary for the territory immediately surrounding the Assembly grounds and a large number of new circles are likely to result. A circle of thirty members of the Class of 1900 is already reported from the town of Portsmouth.

The recent appointment of Rev. Will E. Grose of Fort Wayne, Ind., as district secretary for northern

Indiana and Michigan adds another valuable worker to the staff of Chautauquans. Indiana has three Assemblies within its territory and each of these is planning for special enlargement of its Chautauqua work.

In Chicago a number of pastors are holding Vesper Services and full reports of these will be given in a later number of the magazine.

C. L. S. C. work in Iowa under the effective leadership of Mrs. A. E. Shipley, the state secretary, is developing much interest in the Class of 1900 and the circles generally in various parts of the state show a disposition to begin the new year on time.

Mrs. W. D. Abbott, the secretary for Minnesota, reports the opening up of Minnesota in a large number of localities and a general awakening of interest in the state, which will, it is hoped, be crystallized another year at the Waseca Assembly and thus make this Assembly a strong center of work for the entire state.

On the Pacific coast special opportunities will be offered in connection with the Assembly at Los Angeles to enable persons in the southern part of the state interested in Chautauqua to develop that region, using the Assembly as its local center. On the whole from the Atlantic to the Pacific the rising tide of Chautauqua enthusiasm proves beyond question that the movement has taken so deep a hold upon the life of the people everywhere that no amount of troublous times can weaken its influence.

Mr. George H. Lincks, secretary for Hudson County, N. J., has opened up an active campaign in the various sections of his district. Eleven pastors arranged early in the season to hold Vesper Services and others will follow their example. These include churches in Jersey City, Bergen Point, and Bayonne. Eight circles have already reorganized and a number of enrollments have been made for the Class of 1900.

News from the South shows that this field is being developed through the earnest efforts of many secretaries. At Mount Eagle more than thirty new members have been reported for the Class of 1900, through the efforts of Miss Battaile, the Tennessee state secretary. An interesting report from Mrs. Kate M. Jarvis, state secretary for Alabama, tells of her work at the Chautauqua Assemblies in connection with that of Miss Love, the general southern secretary. Mrs. Jarvis' first Assembly was that of Alabama, situated at Talladega, a charming little city among the hills. Interesting Round Table exercises were held and Recognition Day observed. One graduate was able to be present and receive his diploma, a lawyer from Jasper, Alabama, who in the midst of his busy life had found time to pursue the course. Many teachers were present from all parts of the state

and a large number were interested to develop the work in their respective localities. Mrs. Jarvis joined Miss Love at the Northeast Georgia Assembly held at Demorest, Ga., Miss Love taking the helm in a great degree, owing to the enforced absence of the president. This Assembly is located among the hills of Habersham familiar to all students of the poems of Sidney Lanier. Two graduates passed the arches at Demorest and fully twenty Chautauquans joined the procession. Again in late August Mrs. Jarvis and Miss Love aided in developing a new Assembly among the pine woods of Silver Lake, Ga., a beautiful section of country not far from Atlanta. Ten acres of ground had been given by a Mrs. Helmer of Decatur, Ga., who is deeply interested in the establishment of a southern Chautauqua at this point. The first Assembly was most successful and two large Chautauqua circles were organized as the outgrowth of the C. L. S. C. interest there. The enthusiasm of Miss Love and Mrs. Jarvis has aroused great interest at all of these Assemblies and it is hoped that a successful career awaits them all in the future.

JEWISH C. L. S. C. WORK.

THE Jewish Chautauqua Society is now ready to supply a long-felt want in the Hebrew Church, as shown by a circular just received containing the announcement of a course of study of the Jewish Bible and literature and also giving an account of the plans and methods of the society. The Department of Jewish Studies was organized in the city of Philadelphia in April, 1893, at a convention called by the various Jewish literary societies of that city. The convention elected a committee on organization, composed of representatives of the various phases of Jewish thought and forms of Jewish worship, with power to inaugurate the project proposed. Through correspondence and by a personal visit to the Assembly headquarters at Chautauqua the details of the terms and agreements of the bond of union by which this department is formed were entered into. In June, 1896, the society reorganized on a national basis under the name of the Jewish Chautauqua Society, to constitute the Department of Jewish Studies of the Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle.

Through the assistance of earnest-minded members of the Hebrew Church the department has spread its work over various parts of the country and has now reached a membership of nearly one thousand, distributed in twenty-three states. The project of the establishment of a Jewish summer school and Assembly promises to be realized in the near future. Fifty acres of ground at Forest Park, Pike Co., Pa., have been offered for this purpose.

Following is the course of study:

I. Young Folks' Reading Union, arranged by

Miss Diana Hirschler, intended for post-confirmands, or boys and girls from fifteen to eighteen years of age. This is a two years' course in fiction and history, in a series of interesting programs for semi-monthly meetings.

II. Bible Course. In answer to an urgent and widespread demand Rev. Dr. Henry Berkowitz, Chancellor of the Jewish Chautauqua Society, has prepared a guide for Bible reading, entitled "The Open Bible."

III. Courses in post biblical history and literature, arranged by Prof. Richard J. H. Gottheil.

(a) Comprising the era from Ezra and the return of the Jews from Babylon (537 B. C. E.) to the origin of Christianity.

(b) On the origin of Christianity and the compilation of the Talmud.

(These courses are based on Graetz's "History of the Jews.")

IV. The General Chautauqua Course. A four years' course of readings in history, literature, science, and art of a high school or academic grade.

V. Special courses of reading on a wide range of subjects arranged by men and women of acknowledged leadership in their departments.

NEW CIRCLES.

MASSACHUSETTS.—The Class of 1900 is to be congratulated on receiving the names of twenty adherents from Spencer. This enthusiastic band will begin work on the new books at once.

NEW YORK.—The value of the C. L. S. C. has been impressed upon the minds of a quartet at Griffin's Corners. They send their names for enrollment.

NEW JERSEY.—A circle of twelve members has been organized at Bridgeton. They are still canvassing and expect more before beginning the regular reading for the year.

PENNSYLVANIA.—Five names come from Ludlow to swell the list for the Class of 1900.

TENNESSEE.—The Nineteenth Century Class welcomes five members from Lewisburg.

ALABAMA.—As a result of the Alabama Chautauqua Assembly a sextet of readers was organized at Guntersville.

ARKANSAS.—A large circle has been formed at Beebe. A dozen active workers are now on the list and a successful year is predicted.

OHIO.—Four members comprise a circle just organized at Rocky River.—A circle from Mt. Vernon has joined the ranks of the Nineteenth Century Class.

INDIANA.—At Decatur a large circle will begin the C. L. S. C. life with the study of the French-Greek books.—A local circle was recently organized at Clinton.

ILLINOIS.—The Windy City reports fifteen mem-

bers for the new class, and ten more names will soon be added to the list.

MINNESOTA.—Six names are received from Albert Sea.

IOWA.—A number of progressive people at Clarks-ville have joined the new class.—A circle composed of twenty-two members of the Epworth League at Cedar Rapids although just organized show the true Chautauqua spirit. They are preparing for a beneficial lecture course to begin in the near future. These Leaguers will make a valuable acquisition to the corps of C. L. S. C. workers.—A large club has been organized at Cedar Falls.

COLORADO.—A reading circle has been formed at Freeland.

OLD CIRCLES.

MAINE.—The circle at Lewiston has been re-organized with two '97's, three '98's, and one '99. They expect to finish the course and have a bright outlook for the French-Greek year.

VERMONT.—The trio at Wells, of the Class of '99, have received much benefit from their study thus far and will continue the reading this year.—The Lyndonville Circle is on the march, and will join the ranks of the alumni this year, with the exception of one member of '98 and one of 1900.

MASSACHUSETTS.—The Roman Club of Haverhill numbers a baker's dozen, all ladies. They are worthy Romans, as the name implies.

CONNECTICUT.—At Wapping seven of the circle are members of the Class of '98 and four of '99.

NEW YORK.—The Brooklyn Chautauqua Union contemplates extending its membership among the literary people of Greater New York. Much desirable information concerning their plan of work for the coming year (committees, officers, etc.) may be found in a circular just issued by the Union. A series of attractions has been prepared for the year in the form of lectures, socials, and entertainments. Among these is a lecture on astronomy entitled "The Midnight Sun," by Miss Mary A. Proctor, also lectures on France and Greece by prominent speakers. The Guild of Seven Seals has ten loyal supporters in the city anxious to aid the C. L. S. C. in all its progressive work. They organized a year ago and have found their organization most beneficial.—At Holley the regular circle has given place to a very stirring alumni association.—The Hurlbut Circle has disbanded.—The reading circle at Holland Patent, organized some time ago by a member of the Class of '85, is in excellent condition. The new year opened auspiciously with a public meeting and an excellent program was rendered by the members of the circle. They hope to influence many to join in the work which every member of the great circle finds so helpful. The Patriot Class has a goodly number of adherents in a circle at Adams

Center, with one new member for the Class of 1900.—At the first meeting of the Jamaica Circle, held early in September, ten members were present, but the number will doubtless reach twenty before the work begins. This is the tenth year of study for several members of the circle, some having from ten to fourteen seals on their diplomas. They are all earnest believers in the Chautauqua plan of mental development.—At a meeting held by the Canandaigua Circle at the close of last year the single graduate gave an interesting chapter of her life, the president related the history of the circle from the time of its organization, and the class song, written by the president, was sung. This song was appreciated by all present and shows great poetic ability on the part of the writer.

NEW JERSEY.—The unlucky number thirteen seems not to dampen the ardor of the circle at Bridgeport. They have started out bravely and will complete the year's work in the face of the unlucky sign.

PENNSYLVANIA.—At an entertainment given recently by the Coudersport Circle there was a dearth of musical ability among those who were to furnish the program, and as the evening would not be complete without that feature they were at a loss to decide what to do; but on the appointed night they convulsed their hearers by all joining in a song, of which the following are the words:

Sing a song of sixpence,
Our music all awry;
Four and twenty Chautauquans
Gathered round to cry.
Now our cry is over
We'll all begin to sing,
And the side that's beaten
Will hear our music ring.

Our alto's in the parlor
Clearing out her throat,
Our soprano's in the attic
Trying to reach a note,
Our maids are in the garden
Looking for a key—
That they have not found it
You'll very plainly see.

But isn't this a pretty thing?
Aren't you glad you've heard us sing?

—Enterprising reorganizations are reported from Easton, Minersville, and Cochran. —The circle at Homestead has had many interesting programs during the year. The order of exercises for one of these consisted of roll call, quotations from Lowell, reports on current events, essays on Abraham Lincoln and Robert Owen, book reviews, talks on "Industrial Evolution" and "The Conquest of the Under Earth."—The meetings held by the circle at Kendall Creek are devoted to the review of the lessons in the required readings, always with the additional feature of good music. —The closing of last year's work at Bradford was celebrated by a feast of good things, and the

witty and interesting responses to the toasts will be pleasantly remembered by all admitted to partake of the treat. A list of the toasts is received:

Magistra Epularum.

"That all-softening, overpowering knell,
The tocsin of the soul—the dinner bell."

One Year's History.

"The past at least is secure."

Our Benedicts.

"My dear, my better half."

Our Unmarried Members.

"Hope on, hope ever."

Ribs.

"O fairest of creation, last and best
Of all God's works."

The New Woman.

"My part in life to stand
The strong-voiced herald of a coming day.

The Old Woman.

"There is one old way that can't be improved,
Although it has been tried."

Our Mutual Hopes.

"Like unto ships far off at sea,
Outward or homeward bound are we."

The Future.

"And in to-day already walks to-morrow."

MARYLAND.—The reorganization of the Holmes Circle at Rising Sun took place on the evening of September 16. Officers were elected for the coming year and a banquet was planned in which all members, honorary, active, and associate should take part and the delegate sent to Chautauqua should give her report.

WEST VIRGINIA.—The class at Mason has a growing membership and is duly officered for the coming year. One Garnet Seal memorandum is asked for.

FLORIDA.—An interesting report of the Magnolia Circle comes from the sunny South. The scribe writes: "Thursday evening, April 16, will, we trust, always be handed down in the history of De Funiak as 'Founder's Day.' A goodly company assembled on that evening to organize a C. L. S. C. Ten of the company at once signified their intention of being the charter members, and president, secretary, and treasurer were elected. It was deemed advisable not to cumber the society with too many officers at first. Thursday evening of each week was selected as the time for the meetings of the circle. At the second meeting six new members were added to the roll. 'The Growth of the American Nation,' the first book of the series for the American year, was taken up. The third C. L. S. C. motto, 'Never be Discouraged,' was adopted as the motto of the circle; the class name chosen was the 'Magnolia,' that also being the class flower. A rule which has been adopted has created much interest and some good-natured rivalry among the members, this being that the roll shall always be called promptly at five minutes past eight and at the end of the year those having the greater number of marks for tardiness and absence shall entertain the circle. The first

book has been read by the club and they are now to take up the 'Industrial Evolution of the United States.' The roll from ten has been increased to twenty and all the members are earnest and enthusiastic over the prescribed course of readings. May it never be said of them, 'Were there not ten at first? Now where are the nine?' It is Ruskin who says: 'We have certain work to do for our heads and that is to be done strenuously; other work to do for our delight and that is to be done heartily; neither is to be done by halves or shifts, but with a will, and what is not worth this effort is not to be done at all.' May this sentiment be impressed upon the mind and heart of every true Chautauqua worker."

TEXAS.—The Leslie Circle, at Weatherford, reorganized the first Tuesday in September with twenty members who are enthusiastic and anxious to begin the French-Greek year. The secretary writes that the inexorable tyrant domestic care prevents many of the number from dipping as deep into literature as they would like, but the benefit of the C. L. S. C. is felt by all the members. They mourn the loss of one of their number, the wife of the president of the circle.

OHIO.—Chautauqua study clubs exist at Beverly and Fremont.

INDIANA.—Warren has a circle enrolled among the Patriots. Their work reflects credit on the Class of '99.

ILLINOIS.—A list of names is sent for enrollment from Galesburg; ten '98's and two '99's make up the number.—An energetic circle at Washington has reorganized. They all belong to the Class of '98.

WISCONSIN.—The scribe from the Eugene Field Circle writes: "The circle met for the first time on November 4, 1895, the day of Eugene Field's death. Meetings were held every week at the homes of the members during the entire season. Programs in THE CHAUTAUQUAN were carried out, new leaders being assigned for the lesson each week, thus dividing up the work equally. The circle has aimed to have as much discussion as possible and to have the meetings home-like and informal, so the social element has contributed materially to the interest of the circle. Whenever there was time some game was provided after the lessons were over, and occasionally light refreshments were served. During the winter there were two sleigh-rides in the country to the home of one of the members, and picnics on Decoration Day and the Fourth of July. With all this

sociability, however, our president never allowed us to forget that the social part was a secondary matter."

MICHIGAN.—Many interesting programs were given during the year by the readers at Benton Harbor. On one occasion, after a program of readings, music, and a quiz on the lesson, the club was delightfully entertained by a most accomplished talker, who gave an interesting account of her summer's sojourn in Belgium. She mentioned the points of interest she had visited, described Notre Dame Cathedral, also the city of Bruges, and gave an amusing sketch of the manners and customs of the country.

MINNESOTA.—The circle at Glencoe finds the work of the C. L. S. C. beneficial and entertaining. They send six names for enrollment.—The Lepidonian reading club closed a very successful year in June. The circle was small, but very good work was done and all but one of the class finished and made out memoranda. They will reorganize this year with a large membership.

IOWA.—The circle at Newton sends thirteen names for enrollment.—The Creston C. L. S. C. is very much alive and sends for the books for the new year.—The club of married ladies at Gilman has started out with a strong circle. The members are all '99's except one in the Nineteenth Century Class.—The circle at Clarion, with its busy teachers and housekeepers, is doing good work. They have observed all the memorial days for the past year and used the suggestive programs. Many social events have been chronicled for this circle.

MISSOURI.—The class of '98 is well represented in a circle at St. Louis.—The first meeting of the circle at Carthage was held the first Thursday in September, when officers were elected for the ensuing year.

KANSAS.—A call for Chautauqua songs comes from Cherokee. They have reorganized and wish to become familiar with the songs in which all loyal Chautauquans take an interest.

NORTH DAKOTA.—Seven Patriots are pursuing the course at Buxton.

CALIFORNIA.—Quite a number of Vallejo people interested in higher education met one evening in August and assisted in the reorganization of the Solano Circle. Ten new members joined the Nineteenth Century Class; also members of the Classes of '98 and '99 were present. One of the short courses was recommended for those whose time was limited, but the four years' course was preferred. This enterprising circle will do good work.

THE SUMMER ASSEMBLIES FOR 1896.

BEATRICE. The eighth annual session of the **NEBRASKA**. Beatrice Chautauqua Assembly was held June 16-28, and goes on record as one of the most successful sessions yet held. The audience was uniformly large. Notwithstanding the depressed financial condition in Nebraska and the failure in large crops for several years past the people rallied to the support of their Chautauqua.

On the lecture platform appeared Col. George W. Bain, Leon H. Vincent, Dr. Eugene May, Jahu Dewitt Miller, Frank R. Roberson, Rev. George M. Brown, Charles W. Fraser, Dr. Robert McIntyre, and others. Prof. C. C. Case had charge of the large chorus. The Schumann Male Quartette, the Rhineberger Lady Quartet, Madame Cecelia Eppenhousen Bailey, the Tyrolean Troubadours, and D. W. Robinson furnished the music. Mrs. Mary Calhoun Dixon and Miss Hattie Cleavenger were the readers. Dr. M. M. Parkhurst gave a biblical exposition and conducted the ministers' institute. There were classes in art, physical culture, and elocution, a school of methods in the interest of the W. C. T. U., and a Sunday-school normal class for both young people and adults. There were daily C. L. S. C. Round Tables, and a large class for 1900 was organized. Recognition Day services were unusually impressive, the address being given by Rev. George M. Brown.

The Assembly closed in the nick of time, as on the day following a terrific rain-storm flooded the grounds and at the entrance gate the water was three feet deep. Dr. W. L. Davidson was for the sixth successive time chosen superintendent of instruction, and large plans are already being made for next year.

CONNECTICUT VALLEY, Great gain is reported at the **NORTHAMPTON,** Connecticut Valley **MASSACHUSETTS.** Chautauqua Assembly. Its tenth session, July 14-24, was the very best in the ten years of its history. The audiences were much larger than ever before, the gate receipts showing a gain of twenty per cent over the best year of the past. The splendid program and the enthusiasm of the superintendent, Dr. W. L. Davidson, fully accounts for this gain.

Prof. J. E. Aborn conducted the great chorus, which gave on the closing night the cantata of "Ruth." The English Hand Bell Ringers, the Cecelian Lady Quartet, and Miss Bertha Webb were the prominent musical performers. Miss Addie Chase Smith and Miss Hattie Cleavenger were the readers. Col. George W. Bain, Hon. Wallace Bruce, Leon H. Vincent, Hon. R. G.

Horr, Frank R. Roberson, Dr. R. S. MacArthur, Mrs. Mary A. Livermore, Sonetaro, the Japanese wonder-worker, and Peter Von Finklestein Mamreov were among the platform talent. Admirable class work in various departments was successfully conducted.

This Assembly has its home in a beautiful park overlooking the Connecticut River, in a densely populated region, and is having a steady yet wonderful growth. Eight graduates passed the golden gate on Recognition Day. Rev. George H. Clarke gave impetus to the work of the C. L. S. C. At a public reception and banquet nearly every C. L. S. C. class was represented, and the Class of '99 in connection with the Connecticut Valley Assembly numbers about one hundred. About thirty new members were enrolled for the Class of 1900. This Assembly is loyally devoted to C. L. S. C. interests and the future looks very promising.

KANSAS CITY, The first session of the Fair-
MISSOURI. mount Assembly was held from May 30 to June 13 and achieved a notable success. The beginnings were exceedingly discouraging. The Chautauqua commenced just two days after the terrific St. Louis cyclone and everybody in Missouri was trembling. For five days it rained incessantly and the weather was very cold. Telegraphic reports warned the people of Kansas City to prepare for a tornado. In the midst of such discouragements was the first session of the Fairmount Chautauqua lunched. During the first five days the audiences averaged less than one hundred, but the skies brightened, and the coming of Dr. Talmage brought two thousand people. This gave the energetic superintendent of instruction, Dr. W. L. Davidson, an opening to tell the multitude of the rare features in the program to be offered on future days, and the audiences from that time on were large and enthusiastic and seemed determined by their presence to give permanence to the future of the Assembly.

Fairmount Park is seven miles from Kansas City. It has a beautiful lake with fine boating, a splendid auditorium seating 2,500 people, an admirably kept hotel, acres of choice roses, miles of sweet-peas in hedges, and a splendid grove of forest trees, constituting an ideal Assembly ground. Splendid train facilities are offered from Kansas City.

The musical part of the program included Rogers' Goshen Band, the Arion Lady Quartet, the Schumann Male Quartet, Madame Cecelia Bailey, soprano, Miss Esther Fee, violinist. Prof. C. C.

Case had charge of the chorus. Dr. M. M. Parkhurst gave biblical expositions and conducted an admirable minister's institute. Mrs. W. F. Crafts had charge of the children's class and Sunday-school normal work. Prof. E. B. Warman gave instruction in elocution and Delsarte.

Lectures were delivered by Dr. T. Dewitt Talmage, Gen. John B. Gordon, Mrs. French Sheldon, Frank R. Roberson, Jahu Dewitt Miller, Leon H. Vincent, Frank Beard, Robert McIntyre, Bishop John H. Vincent, and William Jennings Bryan and Hon. Edward Rosewater debated the silver question. There were also gatherings in the interest of the Epworth League and the Christian Endeavor Society. There were sixteen C. L. S. C. graduates on Recognition Day and thirty-two Chautauquans passed the golden gate—a famous record for the first year of a new Assembly. The managers were delighted over the success and instructed the superintendent, Dr. Davidson, to prepare a still better program for next year.

It looks as though an Assembly near a large city might be made successful.

LEXINGTON, The tenth annual session of the KENTUCKY. Kentucky Chautauqua was held June 30 to July 10 and was the very best session in all its history—so everybody says. The program gave great satisfaction. Two severe rain-storms on the two best days of the session, July 4 and College Day, interfered somewhat with the receipts, but the increased average audiences were such that this loss was not noticed in the total results. More and more the entire state of Kentucky is becoming interested in this annual gathering. There is possibly not an Assembly in America, outside of Chautauqua, N. Y., where the average daily receipts are so large and the audiences so enthusiastic. There is no other Chautauqua on the continent where the social side of the Assembly is so developed and so thoroughly delightful.

Among the lecturers were Mrs. French Sheldon, Dr. M. T. Hatfield, Dr. James Headley, Leon Vincent, Prof. T. H. Dinsmore, Rev. George M. Brown, Frank R. Roberson, Chas. Sprague Smith, Jahu Dewitt Miller, and others. On July 4 the attraction was a debate on the money question between Hon. Roswell G. Horr and W. H. Harvey, the author of "Coin." The oratorical contest between representatives of Kentucky colleges attracted great interest. There were also gatherings in the interests of women's clubs and woman's missionary societies.

Miss Bertha Vella conducted the children's class and the primary teachers' normal class. Mrs. Susan Fessenden had charge of the W. C. T. U. school of methods. Prof. R. N. Roark had a class in pedagogy. Miss Helen May Curtis gave instruction in elocution and physical training. Dr. Park-

hurst conducted the biblical exposition and ministers' institute. The music was furnished by Madame Cecelia Eppenhousen Bailey, Miss Esther Fee, violinist, the Tyrolean Troubadours, and the Apollo Male Quartet. Miss Hattie Cleavenger and Mr. Benjamin Horning gave readings and impersonations.

Faithful C. L. S. C. work was done and a large class started on the way to 1900. The Kentucky Chautauqua is in every sense of the word one of the best, and Dr. W. L. Davidson continues as its superintendent.

MOUNTAIN LAKE PARK, The Mountain Lake MARYLAND. Park Chautauqua

closed its fourteenth annual session August 25, after being in session three weeks. Great gain along every line fully expresses the result of the year's work. Representatives were present from twenty-seven different states of the Union. The hotels and cottages were crowded with people and the great auditorium was crowded with listeners. Thirty new cottages have been built within the year. The new Hall of Philosophy is a gem architecturally and was impressively dedicated by Bishop Vincent. The lake of twenty-five acres, reflecting the mountain peaks, is a new feature which is greatly appreciated, and on Venetian Night, when the island in the center was ablaze with colored fires, the water covered with gaily decorated boats, the sky filled with bursting sky-rockets, and the shore lined with thousands of happy people, it looked like a scene from fairyland.

The summer school, consisting of twenty departments of study under the direction of prominent teachers from the leading universities, attracted several hundred students, many of them public school teachers who have found a way of mixing profit with their vacation. Splendid work along school lines is here attempted, and the students are showing their appreciation of it by coming in greater numbers each succeeding year.

The Assembly for the first time was favored with the presence of Bishop John H. Vincent. His coming was hailed with delight and the influence of his presence will linger with us as a benediction for many days to come. Dr. T. Dewitt Talmage, Gen. John B. Gordon, Hon. Wallace Bruce, Dr. Eugene May, Col. George W. Bain, Leon H. Vincent, Jahu Dewitt Miller, Rev. H. E. Jamison, Dr. Wilbur G. Williams, George M. Brown, and Dr. H. W. Kellogg were among the lecture talent. Madame Cecelia Eppenhousen Bailey, the Tyrolean Troubadours, the Rhineberger Lady Quartet, the Schumann Male Quartet, and many soloists furnished the music. Herbert A. Sprague, J. V. Edmond Cooke, Anna Virginia Culbertson, and Miss Hattie Cleavenger were the readers.

The decorations on Recognition Day were beauti-

ful and six graduates passed the golden gate. Many new readers were secured for the Class of 1900. This Assembly, high in the mountains and high in its aims, is more and more each year attracting the attention of the entire nation, and is now recognized as one of the leading Christian resorts of the country. It is no longer an experiment but an immense fact. Dr. W. L. Davidson has been the superintendent for seven years, and if the people have their way he has a life lease on the position.

OCEAN GROVE, The twelfth annual session of **NEW JERSEY.** the Ocean Grove Sunday-school and Chautauqua Assembly closed July 16, which was Recognition Day. The address on the last day was delivered by the Rev. George Edward Reed, D.D., LL.D., president of Dickinson College, after which the diplomas, seals, and prizes were awarded by the Rev. E. H. Stokes, D.D., LL.D.

The attractive and varied program was made up of lectures, illustrated Bible readings, stereopticon entertainments, and concerts.

The normal work of the Assembly was in charge of Prof. W. S. Hutchinson, and two gold medals were awarded for the best examination papers in the junior and normal departments.

OCEAN PARK, The C. L. S. C. **OLD ORCHARD, MAINE.** Grand Rally Day at the Eastern New England Chautauqua Assembly was a grand success and was largely the cause of the organization of a large class for 1900.

The Round Tables were conducted by different able leaders, helpful, profitable meetings being the result.

After passing through the golden gate and listening to the address by Hon. W. G. Hubbard, the five graduates received their diplomas. An alumni banquet, the regular class work, and a grand closing concert were marked features of the remainder of the day.

The broad educational department was looked after by able instructors but the attendance though good did not equal that of last year.

PACIFIC GROVE, The Pacific Grove Assembly **CALIFORNIA.** was favored with a large attendance and the efforts of the management to provide entertainment and instruction for the visitors resulted in a most successful session.

The lectures were first-class, the musical entertainments of the highest order, and both were well attended.

At the Round Table meetings delegates and leaders of circles gave reports and familiar talks were given on the difficulties experienced in circle work. Much interest was manifested in this branch of the Assembly and a membership of thirty-eight was enrolled for 1900.

On Recognition Day the regular order of exercises was strictly followed and diplomas presented

to ten persons after the address by President McClish.

The Rev. Thomas Filben, superintendent of instruction, was assisted in the educational department by an able corps of instructors and a rare opportunity for thorough work was offered by this department.

ROUND LAKE, More interest and enthusiasm **NEW YORK.** were displayed this year at the Round Lake Assembly than last season and the management were rewarded for their labors by an increase in the attendance.

The educational department included the ancient and modern languages, music, art, oratory, pedagogy, history, and Bible study.

On Recognition Day able addresses were delivered by the Rev. M. D. Jump, Dr. H. C. Farrar, and Mr. Arthur Marvin, and two C. L. S. C. graduates received diplomas.

Excellent work was done in the Round Table meetings, a large number of circulars being distributed and difficulties in conducting circle work discussed. The result was the organization of a class for 1900.

RUSTON, At the Louisiana Chautauqua **LOUISIANA.** Assembly every department of work was under good leadership and many earnest students were in attendance. The conductors of the department work were Profs. C. E. Byrd, C. K. Crawford, J. E. Keeny, Dr. Mary A. G. Dight, Miss Mary D. Coleman, Miss Barclay, and Miss J. B. Wealls.

Some of the most brilliant talent of America delivered lectures from this Assembly platform.

The value of the C. L. S. C. work was fully emphasized and a lively interest created by conferences and discussions held on special evenings.

Following as closely as possible in the wake of the mother Chautauqua the beautiful class service as arranged for Recognition Day was carried out. The principal address was delivered by Dr. Fred G. Mayer and five graduates received diplomas.

SEDALIA, All the departments of the Missouri **MISSOURI.** State Chautauqua Assembly were fully up to the high standard of excellence which they have always maintained.

A large attendance at the Round Tables showed an increased interest in that work, which was given a pleasing variety by the conductors, Revs. J. L. Hurlbut, F. W. Gunsaulus, L. M. Vernon, W. A. Quayle, and G. M. Brown. Their efforts resulted in the enrollment of names for the Class of 1900.

The usual Recognition Day exercises were held and diplomas were delivered to ten Truth Seekers. **SILVER LAKE,** Notwithstanding the decrease in **NEW YORK.** the attendance at Silver Lake Assembly this year the management has been able to greatly reduce the indebtedness of the Assembly.

The session was a success not only financially but socially and educationally. The summer university, of which Dr. John P. Ashley is president, included a large number of departments, each one being conducted by able specialists.

A feast of good things made up the general exercises of the Assembly. Three days were consumed by a good-government congress conducted by Prof. Frank Parsons. At the National Epworth Assembly, which continued ten days, Drs. J. B. Berry, E. H. Schell, S. A. Steele, and Bishop Ninde were present. A large chorus, an orchestra, band, and soloists furnished fine music.

On Recognition Day the usual exercises—passing through the gate and under the arches—were followed by an address by Bishop Fowler. During the Assembly excellent Round Table work was done by Mr. E. P. Morrison.

THE SOUTHERN CHAUTAUQUA, The South-SILVER LAKE, GEORGIA. ern Chautauqua Assembly held its first session on the grounds donated for this purpose at Silver Lake, Ga., about twelve miles from Atlanta.

The management, represented by President Everett and the superintendent of instruction, Dr. C. P. Williamson, succeeded in bringing to their aid the Revs. A. R. Holderby, I. S. Hopkins, W. P. Thirkield, E. H. Barnett, Miss Ada Lewis, Mr. George LeForrest Wood, and others who contributed much to the success of the ten days' session by lectures and other entertainments.

The Bible normal study was conducted by Mrs. B. F. Pim and Dr. Williamson, and Prof. B. C. Davis had charge of the music. Miss Bunnie Love, the secretary of C. L. S. C. work in the South, did effective Round Table work which resulted in the organization of two classes.

The attendance at this first meeting was good and every one voted it a very pleasant and profitable Assembly with bright prospects for the future.

TALLADEGA, At the Alabama Chautauqua AS-ALABAMA. sembly the Round Table meetings were very pleasant and profitable and they were attended by a larger number of people than ever before. The work was informal in nature and included questions, discussions, readings, and papers on live questions. Special emphasis was placed upon C. L. S. C. work and readers enrolled for the Class of 1900.

The platform attractions were of a high grade and consisted of lectures, readings, and entertainments by the Tyrolean Troubadours and the Arion Lady Quartet.

The Rev. L. R. Walker delivered an address on Recognition Day, when there was one C. L. S. C. graduate to receive a diploma.

Five departments of instruction were in charge of able educational leaders.

VIROQUA, This, the second session of the **WISCONSIN.** Viroqua Chautauqua Assembly, was most successful financially and the program prepared was above the average in interest and novelty.

Gen. E. M. Rogers, Prof. J. C. Freeman, C. J. Smith, the Revs. Alfred Verran, H. Goodsell, Mrs. Marguerite Craig Knowles, and Judge C. W. Graves were among the lecturers and entertainers present this season.

On Recognition Day one C. L. S. C. graduate passed through the golden gate. Papers were read by Chautauquans and by the eleven girls in the C. Y. F. R. U. who received the garnet seal. Four ladies of the Spare Minute course also received certificates.

WASECA, This was the best year for **WAMINNESOTA.** seca Assembly since 1890. The attendance was very good and an excellent program was arranged under the direction of President Robertson and Superintendent Jennings.

On the lecture platform many able speakers appeared. Among them were Dr. E. A. Schell, Booker T. Washington, Dr. J. A. Chamberlain, Bishop Fowler, Dr. E. L. Eaton, and Samuel Phelps Leland.

Instruction was given by eminent educationalists in the departments of music, sociology, French, German, oratory, cooking, kindergarten, and the Epworth League school.

On Recognition Day the usual services were held. Miss Kate F. Kimball delivered the address and two graduates received diplomas. For 1900 a new class was formed.

WILLAMETTE VALLEY, For ten days begin-OREGON. ning July 7 Gladstone Park presented the appearance of a populous city of tents, hidden away from the busy world in the "continuous woods" of the Clackamas, almost under the shadow of Mt. Hood and yet within an hour's ride, on the electric cars, of the metropolis of the Northwest, Portland.

The program was rich in art, elocution, song, and oratory. Dr. Carlos Martyn, Frank Lincoln, Rev. Anna Shaw, Mortimer Whitehead, Elbert R. Dille, Marion B. Baxter, Edward Davis, Selah Brown, and other prominent speakers and educators were present.

In addition to the special instruction and attractions on the main platform there were provided an unusually large number of special departments, affording the best opportunities for individual study in history, art, music, elocution, Bible study, physical culture, chemistry, business training, kindergarten methods, etc., with each department in charge of specialists who were engaged on salary so as to furnish free instruction to all who wished. There were also elaborate headquarter tents fitted

up for each of the colleges and universities of the states, as well as for the W. C. T. U., the Equal Suffragists, C. L. S. C. state secretary, state grange, religious denominations, etc.

Mr. J. R. Greenfield, of Portland, state secretary of the C. L. S. C., was present through the entire session and conducted the Round Table exercises daily, where he awakened much interest in the Chautauqua work, enrolling a large membership for the Class of 1900. Recognition Day was an inspiring occasion, with nine graduates who passed the arches and the golden gate. The address was delivered by Dr. Elbert R. Dille, of San Francisco.

Altogether the Assembly was a complete success financially as well as socially, there being nearly double the attendance of last year.

WINFIELD, The large attendance at the summer school department of the Winfield Assembly attests its popularity and excellence. Each division—art, literature, physical culture, elocution, physics, political science, and geology—was conducted by an able instructor.

The address on Recognition Day was delivered by Bishop J. H. Vincent and diplomas presented to seven graduates. The exercises for the day closed with a grand rally and a banquet in which three hundred Chautauquans participated.

During the ten days' session speakers contributed much to the success of the Assembly. Among them were Dr. C. B. Mitchell, the Rev. Robert Nourse, Bishop Vincent, Gen. J. B. Gordon, and Revs. Z. T. Sweney and W. H. Willett.

TALK ABOUT BOOKS.

The History of Modern Painting.

Though the books which treat of art in its various departments are numerous none are probably more comprehensive than "The History of Modern Painting,"* by Richard Muther, the professor of art history at the University of Breslau. It is a history of painting, not of a single country but of the whole of Europe and other countries. Volume I. shows what legacy art has received from the eighteenth century, beginning with painting in England, and explains how English art has influenced that of the European continent. Classical reaction in Germany and France and the influence of literature are interesting themes of discussion, while under the heading "The Victory Over Pseudo-Idealism" are presented the relation of the historical picture of manners to historical painting. In a charming way the author describes the development of art, how it was freed from the old traditions both in color and subject, draughtsmen, he tells us, being the first to introduce modern life into the realm of art. With the history of the progress of art are combined biographical sketches of the prominent artists of the various schools and critical studies of their style, making not only a historic but a cyclopedic work of great value to artists as well as to general readers interested in the subject. Volume II. gives a history of landscape painting, of the picture with a purpose, and of realism, while Volume III. is devoted to pictures from life and the new realism. A large number of the pictures are both described and reproduced, almost every page of each volume having at least one illustration, thus materially aiding the reader in his efforts to obtain a clear idea of

some of the most famous works of art. The excellent and refined English into which this history has been rendered is the work of Ernest Dowson, George Arthur Greene, and Arthur Cecil Hillier.

Biography.

With a delicate touch rarely excelled Ernest B. Gordon has produced a picture of the life and times of his father, Adoniram Judson Gordon,* from which comes an inspiration to a better and more earnest way of living. By its vividness the biography shows that the world is progressing through the untiring efforts of noble workers. Extracts from letters, sermons, and addresses form a part of the text.

The development and progress of the French nation during the reign of Philip Augustus in the twelfth century is graphically portrayed in a history of the life of that monarch† by William Holden Hutton, B.D. It is written in a clear, vigorous style and is a valuable addition to the biographical history of France.

The touching and affectionate intimacy which existed between Ernest Renan and his sister Henriette is revealed in a volume‡ embodying a memoir of Henriette Renan, written by her brother, with thirty-two letters of their correspondence when circumstances forced them to separate for a while. The translation, which is smooth and pleasing, is the work of Lady Mary Loyd, and the few illustrations are highly appropriate to the text and add value to the work.

* Adoniram Judson Gordon. By His Son, Ernest B. Gordon. 386 pp. \$1.50. New York and Chicago: Fleming H. Revell Company.

† Philip Augustus. By William Holden Hutton, B.D. 228 pp. 75 cts.—‡ Brother and Sister. A Memoir and the Letters of Ernest and Henriette Renan. Translated by Lady Mary Loyd. 323 pp. \$2.25. New York: Macmillan & Co.

* The History of Modern Painting. By Richard Muther. Three vols. 615+847+883 pp. \$20.00. New York: Macmillan and Co.

A memoir* of Frederick A. P. Barnard, one of the presidents of Columbia College, has been carefully and admirably edited by John Fulton from material collected for the purpose by Mrs. Margaret McMurray Barnard. The services of Dr. Barnard in the interest of education are as plainly illustrated by the description of the events of his life as by the numerous extracts from his works which are included in the volume. An entire chapter is devoted to an interesting sketch of the history of Columbia College.

A comprehensive work by Edward Mayes, LL.D., has for its topic the life and times of Lucius Q. C. Lamar.† The aim of the book, as stated by the author, is not to glorify Mr. Lamar, but "to give the story of his life as it was; to show, as far as possible, what he did and why he did it." This he has done in a skilful and attractive manner. Many of the gravest subjects with which our government has had to deal, being before the public during the life of Mr. Lamar, are brought into this biography, making of it in a measure an historical review. The appendix contains a large number of letters and speeches on important subjects delivered by Mr. Lamar.

The Library of Useful Stories. A series of small volumes into which a large amount of scientific knowledge is compacted is called "The Library of Useful Stories.‡ Primitive man is the subject treated in one of this series. An outline of the early history of man is given, showing his condition in the Stone Age and in the Age of Metals. Geology is represented in "The Story of the Earth in Past Ages," in which the author explains the formation and position of the different layers of rocks and tells how to identify them. What coal is, its source, and the service it renders mankind are described by Edward A. Martin, F.R.S., in "The Story of a Piece of Coal." In another volume George F. Chambers has given a picture of the sun and the bodies which revolve around it, and "The Story of Electricity," by John Munro, includes the latest discoveries in electrical science. The stories are told in a style simple and concise, all unneces-

sary technical terms being omitted. Each volume is amply illustrated, printed in clear type on excellent paper, and neatly bound in cloth.

Science.

"A Study in Hypnotism"* is a unique presentation of this much discussed subject. "Subjective," "post-hypnotic suggestion," and "auto-suggestion" are terms amply illustrated by the psychological experiments which are performed in the course of the study.

A pamphlet of value particularly to the specialist is called "Chemistry at a Glance."† It is the first of a series of publications in the interest of chemical science and deals with oxides, describing and illustrating by formulae the molecular construction of chemical compounds. The effect of acids and of heat on different substances is stated and all necessary definitions are given in the introduction, making a manual useful to the laboratory student.

How the efforts of one man can materially promote the progress of science is fully demonstrated in a volume of "The Century Science Series"‡ which gives a biographical sketch of Charles Lyell and shows the progress of geological science during his time. One chapter is devoted to a history of his "Principles of Geology," in which is pointed out the place it occupies in science, and throughout the book are found numerous quotations from the works of Lyell.

Another volume of the same series || contains not only a biographical sketch of Justus von Liebig but a large amount of information concerning the science of chemistry. Liebig's theory of fermentation, his experiments and discoveries in organic chemistry, and the blows which he gave to popular misconceptions in regard to chemical science are set forth in a manner which first attracts, then holds the attention of the reader.

In a book entitled "The Herschels and Modern Astronomy"§ Agnes M. Clerke has deftly united biography and science, setting forth in an admirable style the influence of this family of scientists upon modern astronomical science. The work is one of value to those interested in this branch of learning.

Belonging to "The Religion of Science Library" are two pamphlets containing papers on subjects of interest to the scientific world. "On Memory" and "The Specific Energies of the Nervous System" are the titles of the two parts of one. The former is an address delivered before the Imperial Academy

* Memoirs of Frederick A. P. Barnard, D.D., LL.D., L.H.D., D.C.L. By John Fulton. 485 pp. \$4.00. New York: Macmillan & Co.

† Lucius Q. C. Lamar: His Life, Times, and Speeches. By Edward Mayes, LL.D. 820 pp. \$5.00. Nashville, Tenn.: Publishing House of the Methodist Episcopal Church, South.

‡ The Story of Primitive Man. By Edward Clodd. With Illustrations. 190 pp.—The Story of the Earth in Past Ages. By H. G. Seeley, F.R.S. With Forty Illustrations. 186 pp.—The Story of a Piece of Coal. By Edward A. Martin, F.G.S. With Thirty-eight Illustrations. 168 pp.—The Story of the Solar System. By George F. Chambers, F.R.A.S. With Twenty-eight Illustrations. 188 pp.—The Story of Electricity. By John Munro. With One Hundred Illustrations. 187 pp. 40 cts. each. New York: D. Appleton and Company.

* A Study in Hypnotism. By Sydney Flower. 226 pp. \$1.00. Chicago: The Psychic Publishing Company.

† Chemistry at a Glance: A Study in Molecular Architecture. By Herbert B. Tuttle. 59 pp. 60 cts. New York: 131 Lexington Ave.: Herbert B. Tuttle.

‡ Charles Lyell and Modern Geology. By Prof. T. G. Bonney. 224 pp. \$1.25.—|| Justus von Liebig: His Life and Work. By W. A. Shenstone. F. I. C. 219 pp. \$1.25.—§ The Herschels and Modern Astronomy. By Agnes Clerke. 224 pp. \$1.25. New York: Macmillan & Co.

of Sciences, at Vienna, in which the author considers certain phenomena which belong "partly to the conscious, partly to the unconscious life, of organic nature" as resulting from "the same faculty of organized matter; viz., memory."* The second pamphlet is the address of Professor Weismann on "Germinal Selection,"† delivered before the International Congress of Zoölogists at Leyden, in 1895.

As a companion volume to the pamphlet on "Germinal Selection" "An Examination of Weismannism,"‡ by George John Romanes, will be especially interesting to the delver in this and kindred subjects. In the first chapter the author examines critically Weismann's system as propounded by him up to 1886, and in succeeding chapters his theories of heredity and evolution and "Weismannism up to Date (1893)" are the subjects clearly discussed. The appendix deals with "Germplasm" and "Telegony" and technical terms are defined in the glossary.

An exposition of the Darwinian theory by George John Romanes is entitled "Darwin, and After Darwin."|| Following the introductory chapter, which presents the "Darwinism of Darwin and of the Post-Darwinian Schools," is a lucid and full discussion of the subjects of heredity and utility. Much evidence, both direct and indirect, is produced to prove the inheritance of acquired characters and the theory of adaptation is brought into that part of the discussion which treats of "Characters as Adaptive and Specific."

The history of the theory of evolution from its first inception to the present time, the arguments pro and con, and the relation of the Christian belief to evolution are, as stated in the prefatory pages, the principal topics discussed in "Evolution and Dogma."§ Elaborate and exhaustive is the author's treatment of the subjects and copious footnotes accompany the text.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

W. L. ALLISON COMPANY, NEW YORK.

Armstrong, Minnie L. and Sceets, Geo. N. *The Social Crime.* 50 cts.

AMERICAN SUNDAY-SCHOOL UNION, PHILADELPHIA.

Durell, Fletcher, Ph.D. *A New Life in Education.* Hymnal for Primary Classes. Compiled by a Teacher.

D. APPLETON AND COMPANY, NEW YORK.

Astor, John Jacob. *A Journey in Other Worlds: A Romance of the Future.* 50 cts.

Ayres, Alfred. *The Verbalist: A Manual Devoted to Brief Discussions of the Right and the Wrong Use of Words.*

*On Memory and The Specific Energies of the Nervous System. By Prof. Ewald Hering. 50 pp. 15c.—†On Germinal Selection as a Source of Definite Variation. By August Weismann. 61 pp. 15c.—‡An Examination of Weismannism. By George John Romanes, M.A., LL.D., F.R.S. 221 pp. 35 cts.—|| Darwin, and After Darwin. By George John Romanes, M.A., LL.D., F.R.S. 344 pp. \$1.50. Chicago: The Open Court Publishing Company.

§ Evolution and Dogma. By the Reverend J. A. Zahm, Ph.D., C.S.C. 461 pp. \$2.00. Chicago: D. H. McBride & Co.

Bloundelle-Burton, John. *Denounced: A Romance.* 50 cts.
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Seeley, H. G., F.R.S. *The Story of the Earth in Past Ages.* Illustrated. 40 cts.

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MADONNA AND CHILD.

From the painting by C. von Bodenhausen The original now in the collection of J. W. McLean, of Washington, D. C.

THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

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REQUIRED READING FOR THE CHAUTAUQUA LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CIRCLE.

A CENTURY OF FRENCH COSTUME.*

BY ALICE MORSE EARLE.

IT is easy to obtain from ancient and contemporary fashion books a complete history and presentment of the modes of France for the nineteenth century.

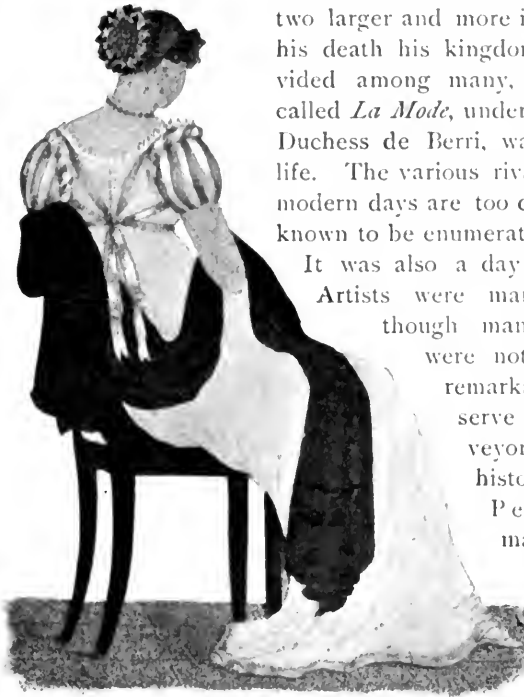
From 1799 to 1829 that truly important and all-powerful publication *Journal des Dames et des Modes* was owned and carried on by an ecclesiastic named La Mésangère, who had been professor of philosophy in the college of La Flèche. In the pursuit of his last chosen unecclesiastical and unphilosophical calling he became so imbued with a personal love of dress that at the time of his death he had in his wardrobe two

of breeches. Every fifth day during those thirty years this revered philosopher issued a colored plate of a fashionably dressed dame, and on the fifteenth of each month two larger and more important plates. At his death his kingdom of fashion was divided among many, but the publication called *La Mode*, under the patronage of the Duchess de Berri, was the ruler in high life. The various rivals and successors of modern days are too countless and too well known to be enumerated.

It was also a day of portrait-painting.

Artists were many and busy; and though many of their portraits were not works of art, nor remarkable likenesses, they serve their purpose as purveyors of past fashions, as historians of the modes.

Perhaps the most marked though perverted influence on woman's dress at the turn of the century was what was known as the classic style. In its most beautiful and



A COSTUME OF 1806.

thousand pairs of shoes, six dozen blue coats, one hundred round hats, and scores

well-known form it is displayed in the celebrated and hackneyed portraits of Madame Récamier, by Gérard, and Joséphine de Beauharnais,¹ by David; also in that of

* The Notes on the Required Reading in THE CHAUTAUQUAN will be found following those on the books of the course, in the C. L. S. C. Department of the magazine.

Désirée Clary, wife of Bernadotte, king of Sweden. These beautiful women, dressed in scanty garments copied from the dress of women of the time of the Roman emperors, recline on couches of antique form and are lovely to look at—on painted canvas. In real life the dress was painfully inadequate and even indecent, of scant protection to the form, and becoming to none save those of perfect figure. Besides these Roman fashions Greek dress was worn: dressmakers had to be learned and artistic as well as deft and of good taste. Two clever and influential dressmakers, Madame Raimbault and Madame Nancy, employed distinguished sculptors not only to draw models for their use but actually to drape materials in pure Greek and Roman styles.

A still greater extreme had been worn by

many women of fashion, headed by Madame Tallien,² who had been the Marquise de Fontenay—she had been born Thérèse de Cabarrus³ and died Princesse de Chimay,⁴ after being also Comtesse de Caraman. She appeared at Frascati⁵ in a diaphanous



MILITARY EFFECT IN HEAD-GEAR.

tunic of transparent lawn slit down the sides almost from the waist. She wore flesh-colored tights with golden garters, antique sandals, and splendid rings on each toe of her beautiful feet.

These tunics were deemed Carthaginian in shape. Cameos of antique design clasped the edges of the lawn at the shoulder; sandals and buskins were held with jeweled thongs; circlets of precious stones encircled the ankles and arms. It is told by a famous bibliophile that by actual proof the weight of an entire dress of a lady of fashion, including her trinkets, was less than two pounds. This dress was not only for house wear but appeared upon the street.

In the year 1801 there appeared in France, under the Consulate,⁶ a caricature which has become historical. It represents the fashions of the years 1789, 1796, and 1801, and bears the label, "Which is the most ridiculous?" The fashions of 1801 certainly bear the palm of absurdity. The grotesqueness and ugliness of woman's costume at that date began with the head



A PARISIAN OF 1814.

cropped close of hair, *à la Titus*, with a few disheveled, disordered locks on the forehead, and surmounted with ugly square or cylindrical caps or hats. This cropping lasted until 1804, when wigs were resumed. The gowns were sack-shaped, with the waist high up under the arms, and the neck and arms were left bare in street dresses, as we now wear ball dresses. Thin pointed slippers covered the feet. The Egyptian expedition of 1798-1802 brought into France a craze for cashmere shawls, and sometimes a little

shawl or scarf was worn as a neck covering. For the first quarter of a century this general shape of dress obtained, varied occasionally by perhaps a big puffy, folded cravat or a flat muslin tippet, by a close sleeve or a rolled shoulder sleeve, or by a flounced skirt. At one time military influences showed strong in women's head-gear, helmets, shakos, and stiff-brimmed caps being worn. They were unspeakably incongruous and ugly.



MODISH TURBANS OF 1825.



HOUSE GOWNS OF 1830.

The Empire was proclaimed in 1804, and at once the use of gold and precious stones was lavish. Bad taste and extravagance prevailed. Napoleon openly rebuked economy, and desired variety. A striking but temporary innovation came through the popularity of Gérard's picture of "Love and Psyche": pallor came into fashion, and white powder made faces appear *à la Psyche*. Ball-room dresses were worn short, and walking gowns were long. An opera by Boieldieu⁷ called "Jean de Paris" gave name to many of the fashionable toilet accessories.

The Napoleonic victories in Egypt carried into height of fashion turbans — pretty head-gear, some of them, but destined to become grotesque. Muslin spotted with gold and toquets⁸ of embroidered tulle also were worn. The turban of Madame de Staël is a well-known example. At this time the manufacture of muslin was much improved in France through the universal demand, and also the making of artificial flowers, which were much worn. The industrial exhibition of 1802



BALL GOWNS OF 1840.

showed fine specimens of what a French writer called "those offspring of imposture."

In 1807 Madame de Staël's "*Corinne*" brought harp-playing and scarf-wearing into vogue and the willowy style was *passée*, as soon after stays were worn and have been worn ever since. In 1815, after the return of Napoleon from Elba, every Imperialist wore violets, the Imperial flower, while Royalists donned a symbolic gown of white jaconet with eighteen tucks in significant honor of Louis XVIII. While the white flag floated from the Tuileries there was a passion for white gowns, white scarfs, white ostrich plumes, even for daily dress as well as for ball wear.

Under the Restoration⁹ fashions improved in point of grace if not of comfort and warmth, and soon were—what may be deemed most important of all—becoming. The paintings of the times, such as those of Gavarni,¹⁰ as well as the fashion-plates of the day bear testimony to the prettiness and grace of the modes. The fashions of 1830 may well be called the typical mode of the century,

especially since their revival and unbounded extent during the past few years has accented and redoubled their popularity. Skirts then grew full and undulating, waists grew longer and more shapely, the nape of the neck and line of the shoulder were prettily displayed, the hair was dressed in a variety of odd and attractive shapes. Never before and never since, until within two or three years, were hats so elegant, picturesque, and becoming. They were covered with rich and varied trimmings of flowers, feathers, and ribbons, arranged in artistic carelessness. They were turned up and looped up and bent down to suit the face of each wearer.

Leg-of-mutton sleeves first appeared in 1820, and soon dominated the whole dress. They were stuffed with down pillows and held out with whalebone bands; the sleeves of a woman of fashion touched the door-frame on either side as she entered a room. They were even more distended than the revived leg-of-mutton sleeves worn during the past two years. With ball gowns a short and pretty puffed sleeve was worn.



WINTER GOWNS OF 1850.



POLONAISE COSTUME OF 1868.

This dress was not perfect, though becoming. Had the sleeves been a little smaller, the neck-line more curved, the skirts a little longer, the bodice more gracefully shaped, the dress would have reached a high point of excellence and elegance. Our fashions to-day have adopted the furs of 1830, ermine and chinchilla, the osprey feathers, the varieties of lace, the general shape of the gown; but they are more elegant. We do not wear the slimy materials of 1830, insufficient in warmth and deficient in richness, nor have we adopted the somewhat bizarre styles of head-dressing. Our skirts are longer and our beautiful and useful capes of varied material and trimming put far in the shade the slimy collarets, the mean, narrow scarfs, the ugly little shawls of 1830. The French fashions of the past two years have been truly beautiful.

The Revolution of 1830 produced far less effect on the fash-

ions than the Revolution of 1789. The general outline of dress remained the same while the fripperies and falbalas were many and novel. White and gold turbans were copied from the costumes in the opera "La Juive."¹ Many other operas furnished items of dress and nomenclature. The reign of Louis Philippe is remarkable only for the "romantic" costume and the "classical" costume inspired by Rachel.

The middle of the century was not a day of grace. A certain flatness and tameness peculiar to all aspects of that day and time pervaded dress. The skirts and sleeves were shapeless, the bodices flat, bonnets a horror. The hair, drawn flat and low, seemed to have disappeared from the back of the head, and its meek, stringy ringlets were depressing. Ornamentation was massed on either side of the cheeks, over and below the ears, on bonnets, caps, and hair. This gave an unnatural shape to the coiffure. Below the drooping hair and drooping cap ribbons hung a flopping shapeless collar and hanging ugly sleeves,



COSTUMES OF 1877.

which were neither full nor tight. There is not a pretty or attractive detail of dress of this time. Caps were worn by old and young women, even by little children; their ugly lappets and hanging grasses and flowers joined in the universal wilting.

The Revolution of 1848 scarcely affected dress save in the adoption of tricolor rosettes and ribbons and the frilled "Girondin" cloaks. Little "grandmother" mantles and "kasawecks" or *casques*, adopted from Russia, were worn for warmth over the thin muslin gowns. The latter garment, the kasaweck, was braided and had open sleeves; a favorite form of the *casque* was called the *pardessus*.¹² Isly green, a modish color, commemorated the victory of Marshal Bugeaud¹³ in Morocco. The great novelty of the year 1850 was the fashion of Italian straw bonnets, of various fancy weaves, Leghorns the most expensive.



STREET COSTUME OF 1887.



STREET COSTUME OF 1893.

Waistcoats and *canezous*¹⁴ of various rich materials were worn by all. Muslin gave way this year to silk and poplin, and the heavy woolen material called orleans was invented.

Dressmakers began to deal in ready-made garments and everywhere talmas¹⁵ were for sale. The marriage of Napoleon III. gave a great impetus and verve to fashion. Everything was *à la* Eugenie. Her gowns, her hair, her bonnets, her boots were eagerly watched and copied; and more important still, she brought crinoline into vogue. Horsehair, starch, canes, steel wires, and whalebones all were bent and shaped to puff out Parisian petticoats. Great collars spread out as broad as the skirts, and soon pretty Marie Antoinette

fichus vied in popularity. The empress demi-veils of tulle and net with frilled blond edgings were a lasting favorite. Algerian burnouses with tibet tassels were universal evening wraps. Ristori jackets, zouaves, and figaros¹⁶ were comfortable and pretty with their gold and black braidings. Braiding and astrakhan fur had a long reign. Gold was everywhere, in spots and stripes, on bonnets, belts, and wraps. Tarlatan gold-spotted was all in vogue.

A collection of portraits, prints, and photographs of the empress might be made to show the styles of her days of power. It would be, I believe, the universal verdict that as a whole they were tasteless, poor in shape, and overloaded with meaningless ornaments. But many of the details were exceedingly pretty and were what might be termed typically French, so fully is the word French associated in our minds with grace and style. The worst influence was the great hoop. There had to be much over-ornamentation on that vast skirt-expanse, and to the hoop may be attributed the ugliness.

By 1862 the fashion of seaside visiting had largely increased in France and showed itself in the reign of sailor jackets and jerseys, which were worn in town as well as at the seashore. Short dresses too were worn. The most striking innovation of 1864 was the garibaldi waist, made often of scarlet cloth or silk, stitched in Russian stitch. It was a loose body, too loose and shapeless to stay long in fashion. Titian-colored¹⁷ hair was at this time fashionable, and easily obtained by dyes.

The peplum marks an epoch in the century. It was a basque with skirts short in front and back and hanging long on the sides. It did not consort well with crino-



A HOUSE CAP OF 1830.

lets, stuffed out with jute, horsehair, and yarn, as well as false hair. Over a hundred thousand kilograms of false hair were sold in France in 1873. In 1875 the sale had again largely increased.

The new colors magenta, solferino, shanghai, and peking¹⁹ show the march of military events. Then came the fatal year of 1870, with the siege of Paris and thus the clouding of the sun of fashion. A great deal of black was worn by the sentimental French as an emblem of low spirits, and Alsatian bows of black ribbon, in memory of the lost and beloved Alsace, were seen on every woman's head. Little ribbon rosettes down the side of the skirt



A HOUSE GOWN OF 1830.

farther followed Alsatian fashions. A political play of Sardou's brought in the "Rabagas" bonnet.

In 1873 flounces and ruffles were on every skirt. The pretty wreath bonnets of crimson silk roses were constantly seen with Spanish lace veils, and were as universally becoming as is the mantilla with its red rose.



BONNETS OF 1815-30.

The burning of the Paris opera house destroyed a great display-field of the modes, and hence fashions became more varied and individual. Black still was worn and the rage for jet made the fortune of many Venetian manufacturers. Steel competed with jet for favor.

Crinoline was succeeded by a tucked-up puff or panier at the back, but skirts grew

binding the muscles of the thighs, trailing in the dirt, were both ugly and uncomfortable.

The "tailor-made" gown, severe in shape and scant in ornamentation, though occasionally worn in France was never universally seen on well-bred folk, as it was for some years on English and American dames and maids. It was English in taste, and too plain to suit French fancy.

Nor have the varying attempts at "common-sense dress," be it in the shape of bloomers, divided skirt, or "rainy-day skirt," ever found adherents and wearers in France; nothing could be more remote from French taste, which is for woman's dress, above everything else, thoroughly feminine. And even when masculine garments have been copied for women's wear they have received from French mode-makers a touch or shape which has taken away their severity of outline.

To relate the French fashions of to-day would be largely to recapitulate those of 1830. Women came to them through



BONNETS OF 1835.

narrower and clinging and were "tied back" till 1880. Of the accessories of this close-fitting costume the jersey waist kept longest in fashion. These tied-back skirts,

afflictions sore and restrictions rigid—skin-tight sleeves, painfully hindering circulation, so tight that the wearer often could remove the gown only by muscular help of maid or assisting friend, who, in a sense,



THE ENGLISH MODE IN 1790.

almost universally unbecoming to French figures. Then came 1830 *redivivus*, comfort, and grace.

peeled the sleeves from the arms. Outer dolmans, ugly and uncomfortable garments, restrained still further the tightly bound arms. When these were joined to a *princesse* dress, tied back, the wearer was almost pilloried. French fashions then afforded to the sleeve a little fulness which stuck up stiffly and perpendicularly under the ears,



THE CHINESE COIFFURE OF 1830.

It is interesting to note that though nearly all our fashions in America are French in origin, and all receive their element of popularity and life from France, yet they are most frequently seen in extreme shapes in America. No truly elegant or modish Parisian dressmaker ever sent from her shop the enormous leg-of-mutton sleeves seen within the past two years in our great American cities. Nor would she offer the spreading skirts with heavy interlining throughout of stiff material. The French skirts were infinitely wide and flaring, but they were graceful and comparatively light. In America we accent the fashions, and do not always improve them.

THE FRENCH CHARACTER IN POLITICS.

BY PROFESSOR CHARLES F. A. CURRIER, M. A.

OF THE MASSACHUSETTS INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY.

THE characterization of the French which one most often hears is that they are fickle, are incapable of knowing their own mind, are constantly striving after some new thing. This criticism seems particularly valid when applied to their political history, especially of the last one hundred years. Before the French Revolution there was scarcely any country in which political institutions were more stable and more firmly established, whether or not more satisfactory and more progressive, than in France.

A people who had maintained royalty uninterruptedly for more than a thousand years, and for eight hundred years had been ruled by one or another branch of the same house, can hardly be accused of vacillation. And unless we are prepared to assert that a nation can change its character in a moment we shall be forced, on a careful study of the facts, to acknowledge either that the French are not so fickle as they seem or else that the numerous changes of government during the past century have been due to well-de-

finer causes and are not necessarily the fruits of a peculiar mental quality.

It is to be borne in mind, in the first place, that by the Revolution of 1789 France was severing herself entirely from her past, was attempting to do away, at one stroke, with absolute monarchy to which she had long been accustomed, and to institute in its place government by the people of which she had not had the faintest shadow of experience. As one of the best-known writers on that epoch has summed up the matter, the three permanent results of the French Revolution for France, and for the rest of continental Europe as well, are the recognition of individual liberty, the establishment of political liberty, and the introduction of the theory of the sovereignty of the people.

In England these principles were introduced and have become firmly fixed through the most gradual processes extending over long stretches of time. Here as in so many other respects France and England offer a most striking contrast to each other. In both countries so-called revolutions have taken place, but those of the one country have scarcely merited the name while those of the other have influenced all Europe. In England, too, reforms have been brought about only after long agitation; they have been incorporated into the law and the Constitution only when the conditions were ripe for them, consequently they have endured and few steps backward have ever been necessary. In France, on the other hand, changes have been violent; often the people and the times were not prepared for them; hence reaction has followed reaction, though at last, after long service as a laboratory for political experiments, the nation has perhaps reached a permanent footing.

Reckoned strictly France has had nine constitutions since our own went into effect, though according to some writers who count less accurately there have been nearly twice that number. During the same period she has tried three kinds of royalty, two imperial systems, and numerous varieties of republics. These two simple statements might seem to justify any indictment of political levity, however severe, that one might bring against

the French. As a necessary corrective of such an estimate, however, one must bear in mind the enormous and far-reaching effects of the French Revolution, and the fact that the substitution of government by the people for government by an individual who could truthfully say *l'état c'est moi*¹ would need, not months or years, but decades and generations for its accomplishment. It is not strange, therefore, that the ideals of the Revolution could not be realized at once; a hundred years are not a long period in the world's annals, are not too long a time in which to complete the work of one of the two great movements of modern history.

Not only has France been seeking all this while to secure a permanent form of government, but even now that that object has apparently been attained there are some features of the history of the Third Republic indicating that the spirit of change and unrest is not yet dead. In two respects is this particularly noticeable—in the presidential tenure of office and in the duration of the ministries.

In February, 1871, Thiers was made chief of the executive power, a title afterward changed to that of president of the French Republic; he was chosen for no definite term, and after he had held the office for slightly more than two years he was compelled by the National Assembly to resign. In November, 1873, the presidential term was fixed at seven years, but MacMahon, the successor of Thiers, did not complete it, as he too was forced out in January, 1879, by a conflict with the legislative department. Grévy, the third president, completed one term and was reëlected, but served less than a year of his second term, being forced, like MacMahon, by the Chamber of Deputies to resign his office. Carnot, the next president, would doubtless have remained undisturbed for the full seven years had not an assassin's weapon intervened six months before the time had elapsed. He was followed by Casimir-Périer, who in other positions had demonstrated his special and indeed unrivaled fitness for the office; in less than seven months, however, he gave up the task, for reasons not yet fully known, but appar-

ently because he could not get on with the methods of government and administration nowadays employed by the cabinet ministers. President Faure was elected in January, 1895, and hardly was he installed in office when threats to remove him were freely indulged in, though happily these have thus far proved ineffective.

It will be seen, therefore, that aside from the present occupant of the presidential chair and Carnot, who died in office, every president of the Third Republic has actually or virtually been forced to resign. It is scarcely necessary to add that such a practice conforms neither to the letter nor to the spirit of the Constitution of France any more than it would to the Constitution of the United States.

The second feature of the existing French *régime* illustrating the characteristics of instability is the system of cabinet government which France borrowed from England, and its workings there indicate, to some extent at least, the difference between a transplanted and an indigenous institution; for though many factors must be taken into consideration besides the fact of its borrowed character, nevertheless that circumstance should be given its due weight, since in no feature of their government are the French more often charged with fickleness than in their frequent changes of the ministry. In England, the land of its origin, the cabinet system acts as a rule in a normal and natural manner. In the last 113 years England has had thirty-two ministries, the average length of each being thus about three and one half years, slightly less than a presidential term in the United States; in France there have been thirty-six ministries in twenty-six years, or an average length of about eight and one half months, almost precisely one fifth the duration of an English cabinet. So, too, within this period there have presided over these thirty-six French cabinets twenty-four different prime ministers, while in England during the same time there have been only four prime ministers.

Aside, however, from the fact that the system is not native to the country, it is to be remarked that France labors under the enor-

mous disadvantage of having its Chamber of Deputies, the predominating house of Parliament, divided and subdivided into a large number of parties and factions, so that in this condition of affairs it is almost impossible for a cabinet to gather to its support a majority which can be relied upon for any length of time; the various groups comprising such a majority must all be kept in good humor, and the moment one of them becomes disaffected the ministry falls. The typical and ideal arrangement is the existence of two and only two political parties; but in all countries in recent times there has been a growing departure from this order, so that we find, in republics and monarchies alike, an increasing number of parties—in countries, too, where the cabinet system of government prevails as well as in those where it does not—in France and Germany, in Italy and Austria-Hungary, and likewise, though to a less extent, in England and in the United States.

If now we look a little deeper into the subject and note the composition of the successive French cabinets, we shall find it often to be the case that a change of ministry may mean but a slight change of membership. For example, in the Simon² ministry of 1876 seven of the nine members held over from the preceding ministry; De Freycinet³ in 1879 retained six of his predecessor's cabinet; Ferry⁴ in 1880, seven out of ten; Fallières in 1883, eight out of nine; Goblet⁵ in 1886, eight out of eleven; while in the five cabinets between March, 1890, and December, 1893, more than one half the members were in each case members of two or more successive cabinets. Making, accordingly, the allowance which these statements warrant, we shall conclude that though literally France has had thirty-six ministries in twenty-six years virtually she has had considerably fewer than that number.

Other instances might be cited in apparent confirmation of the view that the French veer about in politics with well-nigh every passing breeze of popular feeling; but in every case we may also learn that, though they do sin deeply in this respect, at the same time careful examination of all the attendant

facts and circumstances will usually demonstrate that there is really less vacillation than appears on the surface.

The next most striking characteristic of France in the eyes of the foreign observer is the predominance of Paris. The best, indeed nearly all, that France has to offer to one seeking a higher education, whether in the so-called liberal or in professional studies, is to be obtained at Paris; thither, too, flock the students of art; there, and there almost alone, are to be found the leaders of thought and the producers of literature; no publishers of note are located in any other French city, as well as almost no magazines of importance and few newspapers of influence. As the capital we should expect Paris to exercise a considerable political influence, but it does more than that; at no other capital is there such a concentration of the whole political and administrative machinery of the state, not only as affecting national affairs but also in many respects local as well. Paris is likewise the business, commercial, railway, and financial center of the republic; in its external appearance, in the remodeling and embellishment undertaken by Napoleon III. through Baron Haussmann, Paris has served as a model closely patterned after by nearly all the other leading cities of France; finally, the revolutions of France have begun in Paris uprisings, whence they have spread to the country at large, and in several instances have extended themselves throughout Europe.

This leadership of Paris is not an outgrowth of the present century; in many of its features it far antedates the Revolution of 1789. In certain respects, as in art and literature and higher education, Paris is likely to maintain its leadership, or more accurately its monopoly; but its political importance and influence may grow gradually smaller than they have been heretofore, and indeed the process of decentralization has already begun.

Aside from the larger powers enjoyed by the local authorities at the present time under the various statutes culminating in the Act of 1884, it is especially worth

remarking that a Paris revolution will be less and less likely hereafter to mean a French revolution. This is due partly to the fact that the straightening, broadening, and improved construction of the city streets render barricades more difficult and the putting down of uprisings easier, and partly to the fact that the French peasantry stand for order and stability, and have it in their power at least to prevent revolutions. More than ever before they are the landed proprietors of France, as well as larger holders of government loans than the peasantry of any other country, and therefore they are vitally interested in the maintenance of peace and order.

A diminishing centralization will prove most advantageous to the government itself. We are aware even in the United States, with a federal system and with a national government with which most of us scarcely come in contact except through the postal service, that the government at Washington is very freely held accountable for both good and evil times; in such a highly centralized system as that of France this is infinitely more true, and every reasonable step taken to free the central authorities of control over local government and administration will have a tendency to render the national government more stable and also, in all desirable respects, stronger.

A third noteworthy characteristic of the French mind is its strikingly logical nature, seen perhaps more plainly in the political and legal institutions of the country than in any other respect. For example, scarcely anything could be more symmetrical and beautifully ordered than the so-called Register in the Constitution of the year VIII. (1799). This provided that the citizens of each communal district should select one tenth of their number, and from this list the communal officers were to be chosen; each tenth was to select one tenth of its number, who with similar selections from other communal lists constituted departmental lists from which departmental officials were taken, while these departmental lists in turn chose one tenth of their members, and from this final sifting—one

tenth of one tenth of one tenth—came the national officials. Again, the First Republic in its first constitution provided for direct elections and a legislature of one house, its second constitution provided for indirect elections at two degrees and a bicameral legislature, and the third constitution for indirect elections at three degrees and three legislative branches. In all these and many other cases the organization of the government was based on theory and not on experience, and this was largely true of the history of French governmental institutions down to the establishment of the present republic.

We have been too prone to think of our own Constitution as the literal creation of the convention of 1787; recent writers, however, have demonstrated that the Constitution of the United States was in the main based on the pre-existing state constitutions and through them, in some respects, on the Constitution of England. The English Constitution, in turn, has been the outgrowth of centuries of experience; France, on the other hand, has as a rule framed her constitutions according to theoretical principles, with little regard to national needs, characteristics, or political antecedents. The consequence was a century of experimenting; eventually logic and symmetry and theory were thrown to the winds, and the Constitution of 1875 was the outcome of many months of most careful deliberation. The result is not only that it has already endured longer than any of its predecessors but also that it bids fair to prove itself the form of government after which France has been striving through all these years of trial and experiment.

Another marked element of the national character is the intense patriotism of the people; probably in no other country, not even in Germany since the War of 1870-71, is there to be found such loyalty as exists in France. The generally homogeneous nature of the population, in race and language, and of the political, legal, and social institutions of the country, as well as the existence of a centralized as contrasted with a federal system of government, may

account to a considerable extent for the strength of this feeling. But to no small degree it is due to the fact that the French continue to estimate the importance of their country according to standards no longer applicable; they forget that other nations have been forging their way to the front and gradually pushing France into a secondary place in the political world; that French is not quite the universal language of diplomacy that it once was; that, though Paris is to be counted among the illustrious cities of the world's history along with Athens, Rome, and Florence, at the same time other cities are now trenching upon it in one or another respect—in a word, the Frenchman is among the least traveled of men and hence is scarcely qualified to judge his country with any degree of accuracy.

As having some bearing upon this feature of the question it is worth noting that personality plays an important part in French politics. This might be expected in the case of the dynastic parties, as with the Bonapartists, to whom a strong individuality is an absolutely necessary qualification for leadership; but it is potent also among Republicans, if one may judge from the careers of two such persons, though in no way resembling each other, as Gambetta and Boulanger. Probably one of the greatest dangers the Third Republic is likely to confront is the possibility that some exceptional leader of men, catering to the devotion and blind patriotism of his fellow-citizens, or a successful general in a foreign war, become a universal popular hero, might be able to establish himself as dictator and wreck the political progress of decades and generations.

In this connection it may be worth while mentioning that personal influence has not been exercised by men only, but certain women have exerted a powerful political influence. To mention only one or two of the most famous: during the last thirty years of the reign of Louis XIV. Madame de Maintenon was almost supreme in the government of France, and among her acts she earned the lasting hostility of

Protestants by causing the revocation of the Edict of Nantes; and for twenty years in the reign of Louis XV. Madame de Pompadour virtually ruled France. While it is generally true that women accomplish results not directly but by acting through men whom they influence, this was emphasized in France under the old *régime* by a strained reading of the Salic Law, which was interpreted so as to exclude women from occupying the throne in their own right.

It may on the whole be questioned whether the French are a political people. This may seem a strange suggestion in view of the feverish condition of politics in France for more than a century. At heart, however, the nation in its upper classes is social, artistic, literary, in the middle and lower classes commercial, industrial, agricultural. Frugal and industrious, the people are concerned first of all with their material welfare, and accordingly have taken less interest in and been less affected by political upheavals—revolutions, changes of government, new constitutions, resignations of presidents, overthrows of ministries, and the like—than an actively political people would be. The broad lines of the administrative system as laid down by Napoleon I. have survived royal, imperial, and republican governments alike; and so long as the country is well administered the people appear to be reconciled to almost any form of constitution, at least for the time being.

The condition of parties is another indication of a lack of real political inclination. Parties are based on ideas, while groups

and factions are associated with interests of one sort or another; now in France it is groups that predominate, and not well-organized, well-disciplined parties. So, too, so far as we can correctly speak of parties, we find them differently constituted than are parties in other countries. Elsewhere parties divide on principles of government, in France on the form of the government; so that in France the opposition is not striving to improve what already exists, but to overthrow it and to substitute something else in its stead.

In spite of all the trials and impediments which the history of a hundred years has been gathering together for France, there has also been a clarifying and a dispersing as well as an accumulating of difficulties, and at last, under the Third Republic, France can confidently look forward to the dawn of a new era in her political development. The monarchical factions have been steadily losing ground until at present they need scarcely be counted; the Roman Catholic Church has given its adhesion to the Republic; the principle of popular sovereignty proclaimed by the Revolution of '89 has become an established fact; the people are more generally prosperous than is any other considerable population in Europe. However confused, therefore, may have been the course of history and politics for the past century and more, one may, with the establishment of governmental stability and the continuance of the general well-being of the citizens, anticipate for the future a more normal and better ordered exercise of political rights and privileges.

SUNDAY READINGS.

SELECTED BY BISHOP VINCENT.

CONCERNING THE CHRIST.

ON the occasion of the consecration of the ground for the "Hall of the Christ" to be erected at Chautauqua, N.Y., the following letters were read. They form appropriate and impressive readings for the present month. This Christmas season, in all probability, celebrates the end of the nineteenth Christian century, according to a correct chronology.—*J. H. P.*

[December 6.]

THREE proofs of the lordship of Christ in our humanity are presented, apart from the testimony of the Scriptures. It is possible, though not within the range of any known experience, to conceive of another person incomparably dear to uncounted

millions of hearts, in the best-bred and noblest peoples, through sixty generations, and personally as precious to those of them now living as at the first.

We can imagine a personage owned as master of the foremost nations of mankind for eighteen centuries, though history has pointed to no such royal grandeur or power except in Him of Nazereth.

The conscience of men might confess a reconciler between sinning souls and a sinless God, empowered and sent from heaven to forgive the iniquities and heal the disorders of all the world, though only one such mediator has been believed in and has given peace.

To unite these three characters in a single personality, actual, historical, and acknowledged as supreme in each—friend, sovereign and savior—can belong only to Jesus Christ, Son of God and Son of Man.—*Bishop Huntington, of the Protestant Episcopal Church.*

It has long seemed to me that one of the brightest fore-gleams of the hastening millennium is the augmenting emphasis put upon the person of the Lord Jesus, in the theological thoughts, in the church work, and in the personal religious life of this generation. More and more he is manifestly becoming King of Kings and Lord of Lords. With every revolving year there is rapid increase in the number of his worshipers and also in the reverent adoration of millions who have long acknowledged him.—*Bishop Foss, of the Methodist Episcopal Church.*

It has seemed to me that the distinguishing fact of this dispensation is that the Invisible One, who by word and by visions revealed himself to our fathers, has visited us in person; that long subsequent to David, and as late as the days of Augustus Cæsar, he stood on the plain of Galilee, in the midst of vast crowds, accessible to all those who had come out of Syria and Judea to hear and to see and to be healed of him. Then "virtue" went out from his divine manhood, in all conceivable forms of vital and spiritual power. For as many as touched him were made whole. Oh, what a fountain for the dying myriads that were around him!

Surely David spake the emotions of that

supreme moment by the Spirit, when he wrote, "When I consider thy heavens, the work of thy fingers, the moon, and the stars, which thou hast ordained; what is man, that thou art mindful of him? and the son of man, that thou visitest him? For thou hast made him a little lower than the angels, and hast crowned him with glory and honor."—*Bishop Keener, of the Methodist Episcopal Church, South.*

[December 13.]

THE greatest blessing that can possibly be bestowed upon a human being is the clear, serene, and sovereign sense of God; and that supreme beatitude is open to men through Jesus Christ alone. Therefore the philosophical apostle says, "Blessed be the God and Father of our Lord Jesus Christ."

The reverence for the name of Christ in which I was bred has been so deepened by free and independent reflection that I am persuaded no judgment, however exalted, of his worth to mankind can ever even approach the full and sublime truth.

What Christ has been to the childhood and youth of these nineteen centuries—to the first immediate tenderness through refined and purified motherhood, to the second through a new birth of ineffable ideals; what he has been to manhood and womanhood at the task of life, under the heat and burden of the day and in the profoundest experiences of the soul—in sin, in regret, in perplexity and grief, in the hopes that turn to despair under the shadow of death; what he has been to the thinker in supplying the final and perfect thoughts of God, man, human history, and the mysterious order of the world; what he has been to societies and nations in the divine interpretation of their existence, and to all the prophets, teachers, and reformers since his time, in filling their minds with ideal strength and their hearts and wills with the power of a progressive and happy realization of the highest—no tongue can tell, no imagination can measure, no intellect can conceive.

The character of Jesus is supreme and alone in the history of the race: his thoughts are the highest wisdom accessible to man,

the final moral and spiritual truth for the world; his pity is the recreative and benedictine power for all the children of misfortune and despair; his indignation is the sovereign rebuke and appeal to moral baseness; his sorrow is the sanctuary of history, and his recorded career the Bible of Bibles in the experience of the generations, the spotless and unspeakable brightness in the darkness of the ages, the eternal source of faith and love and hope for mankind.—*Dr. George A. Gordon, of Old South Church, Boston.*

WITHOUT speaking of one's personal gratitude to his Savior, without speaking of the power of treading on serpents and scorpions, without speaking of the joys of life which come to those who really follow him, without speaking of the conquest of sin and defiance of temptation which he promised when he said that his followers could retain sin and hold it back forever, without speaking of life and immortality—real life and real immortality—without speaking of any of those thousand personal ties which bind millions of men and women in personal gratitude which is personal love, look at the square, hard, dry fact of history. Look at it as an inquiring visitor from the planet Mars might look, who knew nothing about him.

It is a square fact of history, which any one who knows anything about it has to admit, that eighteen hundred and sixty years ago the whole course of the history of this world changed. A new life was born in this world. Moral and spiritual forces came in, which were wholly new and which have steadily increased until this moment—forces which are stronger on the 30th of July, 1896, than they ever were before.

Now, when anybody analyzes this recognized phenomenon in history, seeking for its principles or origin, he comes back to a country which unites the commerce, the history, and, in general, the life of Europe, Asia, and Africa. From this central country he finds that there radiate the lines of thought and of morals, of feeling, philosophy, and life which men now call the Gospel, and working to the very center of this radiation he finds the history, only too short, but still

connected and singularly intelligible, of the coming and going of Jesus of Nazareth; of his words, of his deeds, of some of his journeys, even of his habits, of his communion with God, and of his intimacy with men.

Fortunately for us, still more fortunately for that happy century in which most of our pupils will be living, the men of the last half century have taken up with a new and singular interest—the study, even in detail, of the personal life of this leader of mankind, this savior of men who called himself and was called by those around him the Son of Man and the Son of God.

Such study has not been in vain. It is certain that the intelligent world of to-day loves him with a regard far more deep and real than was the reverence of crusaders who were so much nearer to his time.—*Dr. Edward Everett Hale, of Boston.*

[December 20.]

WE are living in the presence of God, who is everywhere in the fulness of his power, though invisible. For the world's sake he once became visible, not changing his nature but taking to himself the form of man with the nature of man. Now that God has become again invisible he is present with the added power of his own redeeming love and sacrifice. This has been gained as a fact in the divine life, fulfilling his eternal intent by the incarnation and all which belongs in it. The Holy Spirit brings to us this divine presence and power. We know God, by the Spirit, as Jesus Christ. In him God speaks to us; in his name he rules the world that he has redeemed. He meets us in him. When we come to him we come to God. We are to make real to us this divine, invisible presence of God who is love, in love, and the love of the cross of Christ.

At the center of heaven is the enthroned love. The throne of God and the Lamb—that is, God the Lamb—is at the heart of the universe. The highest one is enthroned, for there is nothing higher than love, and love is at its best in sacrifice. Here is God's thought. To know God intelligently, to trust him wisely, to serve him truly and readily we must see God as he is. The

words are not for doctrine more than for daily life, that those who see "Jesus, the Love of God," see God, and as it pleases him most clearly to reveal himself.

The present Christ is God, in the power of the Spirit, governing the world, blessing men, making his presence felt in manifold kindnesses. Not to see this is to push back the sun at noonday to live in the dawn. Let us know, as the truth of life, that God is in Christ, and faith becomes simple and life becomes strong—*Dr. Alexander McKenzie, of Cambridge, Mass.*

THE least considered aspect of a Christian faith is its simplicity. Jesus Christ met the men and women of his time not with dogmatic or ecclesiastical or philosophical demands, but simply with the great command, "Follow me." All kinds of people heard him—John the saint and Mary the sinner, Matthew the office-holder and Peter the fisherman, Nicodemus the scholar and James the rationalist. They came with their grace or sins, their property or poverty, their learning or doubts. They yielded themselves to that word "Follow me," and as they followed their hearts were illuminated, their problems met, and their paths made plain. How simple it all is; the personal following of a personal guide; not an immediate answer to all speculative and intellectual desires, but light to walk by, truth to follow, a new life to live. "I am the Way, the Truth, the Life."

So it is to-day. Many a philosophy of Christianity seems outgrown, many a dogma seems to lose its grasp on the modern world; but never before was the great word "Follow me" so widely recognized as the way of the higher life. The simplicity which has been hid from many a wise and prudent master has been revealed to babes in Christ. Even the continental anarchist may cry out at his meeting, "Down with the priests; down with the church," and then call for "three cheers for Jesus, the carpenter." The central hope of peace amid the turbulent controversies of the modern world lies in the better interpretation of the mind and heart of Christ.—*Prof. Francis G. Peabody, of Harvard University.*

To me the most hopeful indication of our time is the central place which Christ is coming to occupy in the thought of the church and of the world. I believe that he is to be the center of our biblical criticism; that everything in the Bible is to be measured by its agreement with his character and his teaching. He is to be the center of our theology; all our thoughts of God and his government are to be harmonized with him who in all he did and said was God manifest in the flesh.

He is to be the center of our faith; because we believe in him we believe in the Unknown One who was in him and in the unknown world to which he conducts us, in God and immortality and in all which they imply and involve. He is to be the center of our church, which is to be founded not on a creed, a ritual, or an ecclesiastical system, but on this, that wherever two or three are gathered together in his name, there he is in the midst of them. He is to be the center of our social life; we are to call no one master but the Christ. He is to be the center of our studies; for to know him and the God who sent him into the world is life eternal.—*Dr. Lyman Abbott, of "The Outlook."*

[December 27.]

THERE are three Christs: the Christ in hope and foreshadowing, the Christ in human life, and the Christ in history. The three are one, and together constitute the greatest thought or combination of thoughts, the greatest life or combination of lives, the greatest event or combination of events in the world's history.

The Christ in hope and in foreshadowing: Every nation, we may well believe, was intended to contribute something to the progress and development of the race as a whole. The contribution of some nations has been very small—almost nothing—while that of others has been incalculable in its importance and significance. Among the many nations of ancient days a few may be selected as belonging to the latter class. These are Assyria and Babylonia, Egypt, the Hebrews, Greece, and

Rome. To the Hebrew nations, the inheritors in the early part of their history of all that was strong and good from Egypt and Assyria and influenced most profoundly in the later history by Greece and Rome, there was given what, so far as history is able to indicate, was denied in the same measure every other ancient nation—an overwhelming consciousness of sin.

Upon this dark and gloomy background of misery and wretchedness, which even the exaggeration of the poet could not picture too darkly, there came flashes, as it were, of relief from suffering, consolation for distress, redemption from sin. These flashes of light in the midst of darkness became with each succeeding century more definite and more clear, and since with each recurring flash something new was added to this picture upon the dark background there grew up a source of comfort and consolation—a picture of the Christ himself, or, more accurately, of that which he and his coming were to represent.

Biblical criticism of the Old Testament, when pursued from the right point of view, removes, it is true, some of the superficial and sentimental opinions of the unscientific and mystic interpretation, but at the same time it so arranges and classifies this most precious material that it gives us a constantly growing conception of the ideal which the heart of these people, keenly sensitive to the significance of sin, felt called upon to demand, and consequently to expect, as the gift of God to whom they owed their allegiance.—*Dr. W. R. Harper, of Chicago.*

ALMIGHTY God, the one only God; Father, Son, and Holy Spirit! Before the unfathomable mystery of thy being we bow in worship—thou God of our Lord Jesus Christ, the Father of Glory; thou Son of God, far above all rule and authority and power and dominion and every name that is named, not only in this world, but also in that which is to come, head over all things to thy church; thou Holy Spirit of wisdom and love and power, creating, inspiring, guiding, witnessing, comforting;

Three in One; one only God, we worship thee.

We thy servants and children come to set apart this spot of earth to a sacred use. We ourselves come and we desire that our children to the latest generation shall also come to this place to study reverently the life of wonder, wisdom, and love set forth in the Holy Gospels; to think of the unsearchable riches of Christ; that he may dwell in our hearts and in theirs by faith; that we and they may know the love of Christ which passeth knowledge, confess his name, receive his grace, and worship thee—Father, Son, and Holy Spirit—the one eternal God.

To thee, therefore, we now consecrate this ground for the building of a holy temple of research, worship, and obedient surrender to thee. What we give is already thine own. But to us thou hast given it, and thou dost permit us to give it back to thee.

From the deep and unexplored foundations of this parcel of ground to the summit of the invisible atmosphere that crowns it, we give all to thee—fire and rock, soil, air and light. To thee we give these trees full of the sap of life, and with all they shall yield of foliage and bloom and grateful shadows to their latest day. To thee we give the birds that sing here, and the grass and shrubs that shall grow here, the fair snows that shall rest here, and the building which we propose, by thy gracious aid, here to build. And now, our God, Father, Son, and Holy Spirit, we give to thee the children that shall tread this sod, and walk in the courts we here prepare—our children and grandchildren, and all the children of Chautauqua, and all earnest souls who believe in thee and who seek deliverance, and health, and eternal life in Jesus the Christ, Son of Man, Son of God, Savior of Sinners, Head of the Church, the Alpha and the Omega, the Almighty.

To thee, Father, Son, and Holy Spirit, we now make this offering in grateful love. Amen.—*Bishop Vincent's Prayer of Consecration.*

CARDINAL MAZARIN.

BY JAMES BRECK PERKINS.

MANIFOLD are the trials of the man who rises to high political position among a people to which he does not belong by birth and speech; national jealousies are excited by his power and prosperity, and it is always easy to rally the rabble against the foreigner. No one could have foretold that Giulio Mazarini, an Italian boy of humble parentage, would become prime minister of France and rule that country for almost twenty years, yet such was the lot that fortune had in store for him.

Mazarin was born in 1602, at Piscina, near Rome. He was not of aristocratic descent and his enemies loved to dwell on the meanness of his origin. "His extraction is so low," said a pamphleteer, "that one could almost say he had no father." In truth though the blood of the Colonnas and the Medicis did not flow in Mazarin's veins his origin was not specially obscure, and if he did not have an aristocratic pedigree he had an active brain, which was the more serviceable of the two.

The young Giulio was educated by the Jesuits, and afterward he sought employment both in diplomacy and in arms. He soon showed his ability in the former, and therefore decided to abandon the life of a soldier for that of an ecclesiastic, as better fitted for a diplomatic career, but his relations with the church were little more than nominal, and though he became a cardinal he was never a priest.

His advancement was rapid and in 1634 he was sent by the pope on a special embassy to Paris, where he occupied the Hôtel de Cluny,¹ the beauty of which still attracts the traveler and which was then the residence of the papal nuncios.² The young diplomat was attracted by the fame and the abilities of Richelieu, and eager to serve under so great a master. In 1639 Mazarin was naturalized as a French citi-

zen; in 1641 he was made a cardinal, and his career was one of unbroken prosperity.

When Richelieu died, in 1642, he advised Louis XIII. to choose Mazarin as his successor. In this the dying statesman showed his wisdom: not only was Mazarin faithful to the principles of statecraft which he had learned from his patron, but in talent as a diplomat he was not his inferior; it is doubtful whether another man could have been found who would have carried out the policy of Richelieu with the same ability and success.

In the following year Louis XIII. himself died, and his death, it was thought, would prove the end of Mazarin's career in France. He had been a favorite of Richelieu, and during Louis XIV.'s minority the regent would be Anne of Austria, who hated Richelieu and all his followers. If Louis XIII. did not hate his wife he mistrusted her, and by his will he sought in every way to restrict her powers as regent. But the will of a dead king was never respected by the French, and the restrictions imposed were promptly set aside by the Parliament. Anne of Austria became the regent, with unlimited authority, and her friends, who had languished in disgrace under the stern rule of Richelieu, expected that she would forthwith send back to his native land the Italian cardinal who had succeeded to Richelieu's place. To the amazement of all, except perhaps the Italian himself, instead of disgrace he met with increased favor; he was continued in his position, and before many months had passed it was apparent that Anne of Austria saw only with Mazarin's eyes and spoke only as he desired.

It is not difficult for us to understand the mystery. Before Louis XIII.'s death Mazarin had taken steps to obtain the good will of the queen, who he knew would soon succeed to the power of an infirm king. Hav-

ing escaped the danger of an immediate disgrace when the queen became regent, he found it easy to convince her, first that he was useful and then that he was indispensable. In retaining Mazarin in office she showed that she was wiser than those who clamored for his overthrow: she was surrounded by followers without political experience, of whom some were dotards and some were coxcombs; she secured the services of a man whose experience was large and whose mind was bold, subtle, and profound. The work of Richelieu would have been undone if the government had been placed in the hands of the imbeciles who played at politics as the queen's friends; it was brought to a triumphant conclusion by the wily Italian statesman on whom fell the mantle of the Iron Cardinal.

But Mazarin knew that his mistress was a woman as well as a queen and that if his power were assured by personal affection it would have a basis far more solid than any appreciation of his wisdom as a statesman. "When one has the heart one has all," wrote the cardinal, who studied woman's nature more deeply than the canons of the church. Mazarin was a man well fitted to please. He was then a little over forty, of much personal beauty, eloquent in speech, deferential in manner, and charming in conversation. Like the queen he was a foreigner; he could talk to her in Spanish, which was her mother tongue; he knew how to combine the counsels of a minister with the flatteries of a courtier, and the queen, who had cared for her husband no more than he cared for her, found much to admire in a servant who united wisdom, fidelity, and devotion—who was the most handsome of cardinals and the most gallant of statesmen.

Mazarin became alike the queen's adviser and her lover; some even said that he was secretly married to her. This was not true, but in all the vicissitudes of his career, even in later years, when the cardinal, secure in power and infirm in health, was harsh and cold to his former mistress, this Spanish woman never wavered in her con-

stancy to the man who had won her heart.

For eighteen years Mazarin was prime minister of France, but if his tenure of power was long it was far from being tranquil. When he became prime minister the Thirty Years' War was still waging, and France was now the chief actor in that contest. At last it drew to a close, and in 1648 the treaty of Westphalia was signed. It secured the pacification of Germany; it made a just and permanent settlement between the warring claims of Catholics and Protestants; for France it procured the great province of Alsace, which she was to hold for more than two centuries, and it gave to her an influence in Germany not inferior to that of Austria. In the making of the treaty Mazarin played a great part and on it he could have based his claim for fame and the gratitude of Frenchmen; no man had a more profound understanding of European politics and no one labored with more intelligent zeal for the power and development of his adopted country; he could justly say that if his speech was not French his heart was French.

He might well have hoped that when a victorious war had been ended by an honorable and advantageous treaty this would secure the repose and the popularity of his administration. It was far otherwise; diplomatic triumphs did not allay domestic discontents; most of the French people were quite indifferent to the treaty of Westphalia, but thoroughly alive to the fact that they hated Mazarin. By some irony of fate, while few men have done more to increase the influence of France or to extend her boundaries still fewer men have been so cordially disliked by the French people.

For this there were indeed many reasons. Mazarin's intellect was acute, but he was not a man of heroic type. In diplomacy he had not many equals, yet there was much that was small and petty in his character. His promises were freely given and not always carefully kept; he was selfish, and he was by nature an intriguer; even when his ends were worthy his methods were questionable. Besides all this he was a

foreigner, and faults that would have been pardoned in a Frenchman seemed inexplicable in an Italian. If there was little to criticize in his foreign policy there was much of which one could justly complain in his domestic administration. He was ignorant of finance and the faults of the French system became worse under his rule; taxes were high, corrupt officials grew rich, the government borrowed money at exorbitant rates and was always in financial distress.

These causes of discontent were fanned into flame when in 1648, on some quarrel with the Parliament over a question of taxation, the regent ordered the arrest of a judge revered by the public for his honesty and his zeal for popular rights. At once Paris rose in revolt, the streets were lined with barricades, as they so often have been in that city of unrest, and the government found itself confronted by a populace in arms. These troubles were the beginning of the Fronde, that curious civil war which for five years kept Paris and half of France in a condition of intermittent insurrection.

It was no struggle for political rights or for better government; at the beginning, indeed, the courts furnished leaders for the people, but soon the movement was controlled by a few ambitious and unscrupulous noblemen, whose only object was their own advancement and whose only bond of union was their hatred of Mazarin. If we could use modern terms we should say that Mazarin controlled the machine, and that so-called reformers sought his overthrow that they might share in the good things which he kept for himself and his followers. Unfortunately the appeal was to arms and not to ballots, and the period of the Fronde was one of extreme misery. Trade was checked, fields were wasted, and houses were burned in the progress of a civil war in which few battles were fought but infinite harm was done.

If the leaders of the Fronde were not patriotic they were picturesque. At no period of French history have women played so conspicuous a part; in this burlesque war many of the princesses and

duchesses of France were hardly less active than their husbands, their brothers, and their lovers. Schemes of ambition and of gallantry went on together; love and heroism, intrepidity and romance, wit and poetry are found in the records of the Fronde; but the movement started from paltry grounds, it was prosecuted from paltry motives, and it had only paltry results.

At last these troubles came to an end. Twice during the progress Mazarin had been obliged to quit France, but he never lost the queen's favor and as soon as circumstances were again propitious he returned to triumph over his foes. In 1651 Louis XIV. completed his thirteenth year, and by French law his minority ceased. He was only a boy, and a very immature boy besides, but those who were ready to take up arms against the regent hesitated to wage war upon their king. Some of the leaders of the Fronde were in exile, some were disgraced, and some were propitiated. By 1653 all armed resistance to the general government had ceased; the remaining years of Mazarin's administration were tranquil and prosperous, his power was undisturbed, he was victorious over his enemies at home and abroad.

This portion of his career illustrates his greatness and his lack of greatness. In the skill with which he controlled the foreign policy of France, with which he formed judicious alliances and utilized victories won in the field by still greater victories won in the council he had no superior among French statesmen; in the indifference with which he treated questions of internal administration, allowed corruption to flourish, and the condition of the people to grow worse he has had few inferiors.

The war with Spain that had begun under Richelieu was concluded by the peace of the Pyrenees, the great diplomatic achievement of Mazarin's life. If the peace of Westphalia was more important, the credit of it belonged to others as well as to him. But the treaty of the Pyrenees was almost entirely his own handiwork; he drafted its terms, he attended in person the negotiations at the Isle of Pheasants, he used with marvelous skill every argument that could

be of advantage to France, he crowned a long war by results not unworthy of the lives and the treasure it had cost. By that treaty two provinces were ceded to France and parts of three others, and those great accessions have always remained French.

The marriage of Louis XIV. to the daughter of the Spanish king was a condition of the peace by which French power was still further enlarged. It is true that she relinquished any claim on the possessions her father might leave, but no one expected that her renunciation would be respected, and as a matter of fact it was not. Franche Comté and large parts of Flanders were conquered by Louis XIV. under the plea of obtaining for his wife the inheritance which was hers.

The great achievements of Mazarin as a diplomat must not blind us to his faults as an administrator. He found a corrupt system and he was not the man to check it. His heart was set on the success of his foreign policy, and he troubled himself little as to the weight of taxation on the people or the unconscionable profits reaped by those on whom he relied to furnish a supply of ready money for the needs of the state. It was under him that Fouquet rose to such extraordinary prominence and surpassed all other corrupt administrators in the lavishness of his expenditure, the magnificence of his *châteaux*, and the splendor of an existence which was said to have excited the envy of Louis XIV. himself, and which at last brought his career to an end in nineteen years of close imprisonment.

In the irregularities of the administration Mazarin too often found opportunities for his own gain and he was little inclined to projects of radical reform. He had a taste for jobbery, for making snug contracts with the government and buying its securities at a handsome discount, sadly out of place in a man who in some respects was no unworthy successor of Richelieu.

The fortune left by the cardinal has been exaggerated, yet it was very great, and in purchasing power was equivalent to ten or fifteen million dollars to-day. But it would not be just to condemn him as we should now condemn a man who acquires ten mil-

lions at the expense of the state. It was not a time of pecuniary disinterestedness; a person holding high office was expected as a matter of course to grow rich and for it there were opportunities which no one regarded as corrupt. A man in power received great salaries; enormous pensions were bestowed upon him, princely domains were granted him; he was expected not to serve the state for honor only and he did not disappoint such expectations. Richelieu was not a corrupt man, but his power furnished him the means of supporting a princely state and leaving a princely fortune; Colbert was a faithful servant of the king, yet he left a fortune of ten millions, not amassed by corrupt means but accumulated from the perquisites of his offices and from largesses which he had no scruples in accepting from his sovereign and was not at all backward in soliciting.

It was due to Colbert that Mazarin became a rich man. He managed his own finances as poorly as those of the state, and though he received largely from the public treasury yet at the end of the Fronde his private affairs were in hopeless confusion. It was his good fortune that Colbert took charge of his interests and showed in the service of the cardinal the same intelligent zeal which he afterward displayed in the service of his country.

With assured wealth and assured position Mazarin turned his attention to the establishment of his family; he brought from Italy a number of nieces, and some of them had careers as extraordinary as that of their uncle. One might have been queen of France if her uncle had consented, one became the mother of an English queen, and another was the mistress of an English king; they married Contis and Bouillons and Estes. One married the head of the illustrious house of Colonna, and when the prince took his bride to his palace it is said he showed her a room and told her that it was occupied by her grandfather when *maitre d' hôtel* for his grandfather. "I do not know about my grandfather," replied the bride, "but I know that I have made a poorer match than any of my sisters." But the nieces of Mazarin

had wild and unmanageable blood in their veins, and while they found wealth and husbands of princely rank few of them found either happiness or tranquillity.

In December, 1659, the peace of the Pyrenees was signed, and not long after that the man who had framed it met his end. The cardinal's career seemed to close in felicity: he possessed the full confidence of Louis XIV., his wealth furnished him the means of indulging the tastes that were dear to him, he built a magnificent palace, his collections of books and paintings were hardly equaled in Europe, his fame as a statesman was secure, his enemies had ceased to

trouble him. But disease shortened his enjoyment of the possessions for which he had struggled with indomitable resolution. The cardinal loved the good things of this world—its pomp and power and beauty; yet he met death calmly, in 1661. When his long administration of eighteen years closed France was at peace, his political projects were crowned with success, his power was unquestioned, and his wealth secure. In many ways he was not a great man, but he had an extraordinary career, and only unusual qualities could have assured so triumphant a close to a stormy and perturbed existence.

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

BY H. MORSE STEPHENS, M.A.

PROFESSOR OF MODERN EUROPEAN HISTORY IN CORNELL UNIVERSITY.

THE history of the French Revolution has only been scientifically studied within the last quarter of a century. Previously this momentous period of French history, with its enormous influence throughout Europe, was hysterically, philosophically, or theatrically treated. This in itself was not unnatural. The events of the Revolution were so startling and dramatic that contemporary observers and later students lost all sense of proportion in writing about it. The sober language of history seems to have been considered unsuitable by many authors for the narration of these events, and exaggerated adjectives and flowery epithets therefore were employed. Those writers who were not overpowered by the dramatic character of the Revolution were so impressed by its political effects that they used almost as exaggerated language in their philosophical disquisitions as their more imaginative comrades. The era, however, of dealing with the Revolution rhetorically and pseudo-philosophically has ended, and the period is now being studied with the same scientific appeal to original documents and the same careful appreciation of evidence as other important epochs in the history of the world.

The history of the historiography of the French Revolution would form an interesting study. Contemporaries were fully aware that they were living in a time of exceptional importance, and many are the really interesting accounts given by them as histories of the French Revolution at different dates in the full belief that the Revolution had come to an end. Particularly pathetic is, for instance, the "History of the French Revolution" published by Rabaut de Saint-Étienne¹ in 1792. This distinguished Protestant leader who had played an important part in the Constituent Assembly thought that the Revolution was over when the Constitution of 1791 had been framed and promulgated, little guessing that but the first steps had been taken and that he himself was to perish upon the guillotine as a proscribed reactionary.

These histories by contemporaries are of little value to modern students, for contemporaries cannot in the nature of things estimate the relative importance of events. During the reign of Napoleon and the period of the Restoration the Revolution was too clearly in the remembrance of men for fair consideration, and it was hardly likely that the imperial tyrant, who had

absorbed to his own glory the fruits of revolutionary energy, or that the restored Bourbons, who had been so pitilessly persecuted, should permit anything to be published in France except diatribes against the revolutionary government. Foreigners no less than Frenchmen in the early years of the nineteenth century looked upon the occurrences of the French Revolution as a horrid nightmare and referred to them only as examples of political depravity.

After the Revolution of 1830 a new spirit came over the attitude of Frenchmen toward the more famous Revolution of 1789. With a king upon the throne who was the son of that Duke of Orleans who had crowned his opposition to the Bourbon monarchy by voting for the death of Louis XVI. and had taken upon himself the name of Citizen Égalité, and who represented the principle of limited monarchy which Mirabeau and others had endeavored to set up, the history of the Revolution was no longer tabooed in France but ardently studied. Thiers, Louis Blanc, and others compiled elaborate histories from different points of view, Lamartine hysterically wept over the woes of the Girondins, playwrights and novelists laid their scenes amid the events of the Terror; but these writers one and all wrote for political or dramatic effect and did not labor to ascertain the truth.

To this period belongs the most famous account of the French Revolution written in the English language—the prose epic of Thomas Carlyle. As a history it may be said at once that Carlyle's narrative is absolutely worthless. Both his own disposition and the time at which he wrote made this inevitable. The only materials available were contemporary histories, files of newspapers, and some series of memoirs. Even of these he made insufficient use, for his temperament was that of a philosopher or a poet, not that of an historian.

It is worth while in this place to mention the story told to the present writer by the officials of the British Museum, that Carlyle refused to avail himself of the wealth of contemporary newspapers and documents in the library of the museum because he

could not be favored above other readers and granted the use of a private room. But Carlyle's history would have been neither better nor worse if he had taken advantage of his opportunities. His aim was not to discover and narrate with proper proportion the course of events, but rather to inflame the imagination of his readers by graphic descriptions and to philosophize over what he considered to be the political and moral lessons to be learned from the story of revolutionary France. Carlyle's famous work, in short, is a classic of English literature but it is not a history.

If any one needs a proof of this statement let him compare the well-authenticated accounts of the lives and careers of Marat and Robespierre² with Carlyle's fanciful portraits. One would believe from them that Marat had been a horse doctor, or in Carlyle's own words, "a vile horse-leech," whereas the true record of Marat's life and scientific attainments is given in one of the books which Carlyle used most frequently, the "*Histoire Parlementaire*," by Buchez and Roux; and one would believe that Robespierre's complexion was ever of a sea-green hue, though as a matter of fact the adjective *verdâtre*³ is only once applied to him, in an account by a personal enemy, of his appearance on one particular occasion when speaking at the Jacobin Club.

As an instance of more elaborate misstatement reference may be made to Carlyle's well-known description of the flight to Varennes. It so happens that upon this particular episode Carlyle was acquainted with the best authorities, but he made such a wrong-headed use of them that nearly every assertion made by him is inaccurate. Mr. Oscar Browning has made a special study of this episode and has published in a volume entitled "*The Flight to Varennes and Other Essays*" a detailed criticism of Carlyle's account which deserves to be read for its exposition of Carlyle's singular capacity for making mistakes.

It has seemed worth while to notice at some length the modern view held by scholars of Carlyle's "*French Revolution*," for he is too often regarded as a serious

historian. No notice need be taken of the works of other English writers, but it should be noted that in France a new school has arisen which has applied scientific methods to the study of the period. Instead of publishing elaborate general histories in several volumes modern scholars are engaged in editing documents of primary authority, in checking by careful comparison the statements of the memoir-writers and the contemporary newspapers, and in investigating the details of provincial, financial, military, and economic affairs of the period. Owing to their work the French Revolution now appears under a different aspect. Stripped of much legend, divested of much of the political significance which former students attributed to it, and regarded as an inevitable development and not as a startling and inexplicable outburst, the crisis which closed the last century in France need no longer be treated with hysterical superlatives, philosophic generalities, or moral reflections.

The first great misapprehension caused by the dramatic presentation of the history of the French Revolution is that its events were altogether unnatural and betokened a condition of things and a state of mind abnormal and unparalleled. This is far from being the truth. Every step taken during the French Revolution was the logical and inevitable outcome of what preceded. Given the conditions existing at any particular epoch of the Revolution no possible solution could have met the situation other than that actually adopted. Many are the speculations that have been indulged in as to whether Mirabeau could have saved the monarchy or Robespierre established the Reign of Virtue; but with regard to no period of history are such speculations more utterly fruitless. It is easy enough to be wise after the event, and to argue that the whole French people must have been smitten with madness to have acted as they did; but the more carefully each stage of the Revolution is studied the more clearly does it appear how inevitable was the sequence of events.

If the reader plunges at once into the

tale of the Reign of Terror a certain feeling of stupefaction is natural, and the only possible explanation seems to be found in the theory of national insanity. But if the whole history of the period be studied month by month the proceedings of the Reign of Terror become perfectly intelligible. For this reason it is far better as a preliminary to reading the history of the French Revolution to get some knowledge of the previous history of France and of the growth of the Bourbon monarchy than to waste time over volumes and essays upon the so-called causes of the Revolution. Nothing is more prejudicial to true historical knowledge than these studies of causes of events. The right understanding of previous history carries a knowledge of the causes of subsequent developments with it, while the hasty generalizations of ill-informed philosophers afford a poor basis for further study. Students are therefore earnestly advised to make themselves familiar with the history of France during the eighteenth century and to study facts rather than theories.

One of the points which modern scientific research has made most clear with regard to the French Revolution and which proves that its course was not abnormal is the close inter-relation of internal and foreign affairs during the period. What differentiates the Revolution of 1789-99 from all other revolutions and led to its exceptional features was the interference of and with other European powers. Mirabeau, the greatest statesman of the time, perceived at an early date that fatal complications would result if France was not permitted to work out the political and social changes she needed free from foreign intervention. These changes could not be accomplished without a trial of strength between the partisans of the old and the new ideas, and an outbreak of civil war was to be expected. In one of his "Notes for the Court" he declares that civil war is not to be feared since it is the rational means of settling domestic difficulties when compromise is no longer possible; but that foreign war should be avoided at all costs,

since the interference of foreigners would rouse, even to the extinction of liberty and to the forgetfulness of the aims of the Revolution, the spirit of national resistance. But the king and queen of France could not understand the wisdom of Mirabeau. They desired to call in the aid of foreigners on their own behalf and thus wrecked the only chance of constitutional monarchy.

Can any one doubt that if one or more foreign powers had come to the help of the South during the Civil War the American people would have submitted to any extent of arbitrary authority for the maintenance of national existence? This consideration will serve to make the course of the French Revolution more intelligible. After the death of Mirabeau the court obviously looked for foreign help, and after the dissolution of the Constituent Assembly the leading orators of the party which distrusted the monarchy advocated war as a political measure. It was France that began the struggle which was to last with but slight intermission for more than twenty years; for she soon found that it was not possible for her to pick and choose her opponents, because the whole of monarchical Europe feared the spread of French political ideas.

Every stage in the progress of the war had its effect upon the condition of politics at home: the first repulses of the French army on the frontier led to the invasion of the Tuileries by the mob on June 20, 1792; the advance of the Prussians and the publication of Brunswick's manifesto⁴ led to the capture of the Tuileries and the suspension of the royal authority on August 10; the further advance of the Prussians and the seemingly impending fall of the capital were followed by the massacres in the prisons of Paris. Then came a startling change in the position of affairs. After the cannonade of Valmy the Prussians retreated and a series of victories and conquests roused the French from the depths of despair to the height of enthusiasm. Belgium, Mayence, Savoy, and Nice welcomed the French armies, and the French Republicans, believing these successes were due to the proclamation of republican gov-

ernment, propounded the scheme of the revolutionary propaganda, by which France was to wage war against all kings for the freedom of all peoples and to inaugurate representative government over the whole of Europe. The declaration of the revolutionary propaganda made it necessary to face Europe in arms. England, Holland, Spain, Portugal, and the Empire were added to the list of the foes of the French Republic, and the execution of Louis XVI. was regarded as a challenge to his brother monarchs.

But France soon found that republican enthusiasm could not supply the place of military discipline and that the task she had undertaken under the anarchic conditions then existing was too great for her. The desertion of the first great Republican general, Dumouriez,⁵ was followed by defeats in every quarter and French territory was invaded on every side. Added to this in the summer of 1793 France was torn by civil war; on the one side the people of La Vendée fought under the white flag for the monarchy and the Catholic Church, while on the other the great provincial cities, like Lyons and Marseilles, jealous of the supremacy of Paris, declared for the Girondin party, which had been expelled from the National Convention. At this critical moment the great Committee of Public Safety was entrusted with supreme and arbitrary authority with the mission of suppressing anarchy at home and saving France from her foreign foes.

The establishment of this arbitrary authority and of its system of government, the Reign of Terror, was no suddenly adopted measure. The dispatch of deputies-on-mission with full powers to the provinces, the creation of the Revolutionary Tribunal to judge suspected traitors, the passing of the Law of the Maximum for the cheapening of articles of prime necessity, the very formation of the Committee of Public Safety itself were all steps taken one by one to meet fresh emergencies. National existence depended upon strong government and strong government was provided. The great Committee of Public Safety saved France and the system by which it ruled was submitted to by the people until the need was past.

This is not the place to deal with the Reign of Terror with its various dramatic events; it is enough to state that by its means the Committee of Public Safety turned France into one vast arsenal and directed all her resources for the successful prosecution of the war against the invaders. But the strain was great. As soon as the victory of Fleurus and other military successes proved that France was a match for her numerous enemies the Reign of Terror was brought to an end. The story of Robespierre's fall presents, indeed, many other points of interest, but the essential point to bear in mind is that the sanguinary procedure of the Terror could not outlast the national dangers that gave it birth.

The government of the Thermidorians⁶ which followed continued to be arbitrary though it ceased to be sanguinary. From standing upon the defensive the French Republic in its turn became an aggressor. But it abandoned the notion of the revolutionary propaganda, perceiving that it had no more right to interfere in the internal arrangements of foreign countries than foreign countries to interfere with it, and entered once more into the comity of nations by making treaties of peace with the monarchs of Prussia and of Spain in 1795. In its internal government likewise there was a reaction from the strenuous measures of the Terror; the Law of the Maximum was repealed, the Revolutionary Tribunal was dissolved, and a new constitution was drawn up to take the place of arbitrary rule.

It will be seen, then, that the key-note for the right understanding of the history of the French Revolution is to be found in a just appreciation of the influence exerted by the origin and development of the foreign war. Had the French Revolution not become a struggle for national existence it might not have differed greatly from other important political movements and there need have been no Reign of Terror.

Another result of scientific research in the history of the French Revolution has been the humanizing of the principal actors who played a part in the great drama. In the accounts written by prose poets like Carlyle

and excitable rhetoricians like Lamartine the hysterical key had to be maintained by the overdrawing of the portraits of personalities. It was believed to be necessary to exaggerate the light and shade, and accordingly the victims of the Revolution were generally depicted as angels and martyrs and those who triumphed over them as malignant and bloodthirsty fiends. The sympathy of posterity is naturally with the defeated party in any political struggle in which innocent victims perish, and the sanguinary record of the Reign of Terror at the first reading inspires the conviction that its promoters were monsters who delighted in shedding human blood. On the other hand some writers, perceiving the benefits which have accrued to France and to the world from the Revolution, or caught with enthusiasm for the lofty ideals of political and social regeneration at the time propounded, have tried to canonize certain of the most conspicuous leaders of the Revolution.

History refuses to indorse these exaggerations. Impartial investigation shows Louis XVI. to have been an amiable but stupid monarch, incapable of frankly adopting any consistent scheme of policy; Marie Antoinette was his evil genius in politics, preventing him from taking his place as a constitutional ruler and urging him to rely upon foreign help for the restoration of his authority; Madame Elisabeth, the king's sister, was the confidant and secret agent at court of her younger brother, the Comte d'Artois; but the sufferings and deaths of these three conspicuous personages have caused their treachery and blundering to be overlooked.

Similar investigation with similar impartiality has shown that Robespierre was not the malignant shedder of blood commonly represented, but a visionary whose vanity allowed him to be represented by his colleagues as responsible for all the atrocities of the Reign of Terror and thus made the scapegoat of the Committee of Public Safety; the vigorous Danton instead of being treated solely as the author of the massacres of September in the prisons of Paris is now regarded as the energetic minister who labored for the salvation of France in the

critical days of August, 1792, as the statesman who endeavored to heal the enmity between the Girondins and the Mountain,⁷ as the politician who more than any other man brought about the establishment of strong government in 1793, and as the unsuccessful advocate of clemency during the Reign of Terror; while Marat, who has been the most calumniated of all the revolutionists and who has been painted in particularly dark colors in order to palliate the crime of his assassin, Charlotte Corday, is now recognized as a man of high intellectual attainments and singular foresight, who was persecuted for exposing the incapacity of Lafayette, and whose exaggerated journalistic language has been accepted as the true index to his character while his deeds of mercy have been forgotten.

The Girondin orators, whose eloquence and pathetic fate have obliterated the memory of their political incapacity, are in the clear light of documents seen to have been

the men who plunged France into the horrors of foreign war, and who at a later date struggled even to rebellion against the strong men of the Mountain then striving to bring the war to a successful issue.

With no one has modern examination dealt so successfully as with Mirabeau; the profligacy of his life indeed stands out in stronger relief than before, but his political sagacity, knowledge of men, and insight into the meaning of events have been made abundantly manifest.

In conclusion it should be noted that this article has not been intended to give an account of the French Revolution, but to supplement historical reading with knowledge of the work of recent writers and the views which they uphold. It is hoped that a corrective may thus be afforded to the exaggerated and hysterical notions which continue to fill the pages of books in the English language upon the history of the great French Revolution.

A PREJUDICE AGAINST MEMORY.

BY CAMILLE MÉLINAND.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE FRENCH "REVUE DES DEUX MONDES."

IT is customary to treat good memories with a certain disdain. We never admire them without some irony or some pity. Praises or criticisms of our memory leave us rather cold. When the memory is concerned our self-esteem is not touched; we are neither much flattered nor much humiliated; we speak of it without embarrassment; we declare without modesty that it is good, and we confess without shame that it is bad.

It seems to me that this disdain is a little short-sighted. We ought to be as proud of our memory as of our most brilliant qualities. Or, to speak more exactly, it seems to me that our most brilliant faculties can easily be reduced to faculties of memory; and I should like to prove it in regard to some of them. But I especially believe that the most precious of faculties—the judgment—depends on the memory,

and that there is no accurate intellect without a memory that is rich, tenacious, faithful, and ready; that one does not judge well unless one remembers well.

Let us consider first some of the most brilliant gifts with which we are endowed. It is by our imagination, by the depth of our sympathy, by our penetration, by our delicacy that we most frequently make ourselves admired. Are not these in reality qualities of memory?

For the imagination this is almost evident. To have an imagination is first of all to represent to one's self with intensity the scenes or events at which one has been present; to review them and relive them. Now to imagine thus is to remember; not to remember in an abstract and verbal fashion, but in a concrete and living fashion. This force of imagination is therefore nothing but a tenacity and a special fidelity of

memory. To have imagination is again and above all to represent with intensity scenes or events at which one has not been present; for example, scenes or events that are future; to transport one's self to them in person. This again is memory. For it is a fact in elementary psychology that the most complicated images, and the most chimerical, are always recollections differently combined together; one does not represent to himself the future, except in remembering the past. In short, to have some imagination is to represent to one's self in the form of concrete images the most abstract ideas.

The majority of good writers and all true poets are thus constituted; with them conception ends in vision. Now it is clear that this imagination is nothing but a species of memory; we have not at our service any images unless our memory is rich in things seen. A poet is therefore a man who has in his mind a whole treasure of visual recollections; and a writer like Taine, with whom the idea is so clear that of itself it spreads out into a picture, was impossible without a memory that was tenacious and exact in form and color. We see that imagination, however marvelous and sublime it appears—the imagination of a Montaigne or a Hugo—to speak frankly is nothing but a good memory.

The gift of inspiration is also one of those that men marvel over most. Inspiration has always appeared almost a supernatural condition; we attribute it to a god, to a genius, to a muse. Let us look at it more closely. What is inspiration? It is the easy, broad, and powerful flight of ideas; it is a palpitation of the whole being, intoxicated with luminous thought and precise vision; it is a reflection no longer slow, cold, and laborious, but ardent, passionate. Now what is all this but a happy excitation of memory? Consider that everywhere and always it is the memory that furnishes us with ideas. All those that pour forth in our minds when we meditate, when we speak, when we write, come from the memory. The spring of the association of ideas sends them forth from the

dark regions where they were sleeping. Of course something else is necessary. Memory presents to us the recollections pell-mell; there are some that are suitable, others unsuitable; a special faculty of choice and selection is necessary and that faculty is reason. But it is no less true that the reason does not work on emptiness, that it needs materials, and that these materials are almost always recollections.

What really is genius? What is the sublime discovery of a Newton or of a Darwin if it is not a recollection which springs from the depths of the memory and opens to the mind infinite vistas? It is therefore the richness and the docility of our memory that make up our intellectual worth; but not being good enough psychologists, and being especially the dupes of ready-made phrases, we do not suspect this. And yet under the imposing names of inspiration, genius, etc., perhaps we ought to see simply the memory.

The gift of sympathy is no less precious than any other. I mean by sympathy the faculty of anticipating the emotions of others; of feeling the reaction of everything that is going on in their hearts; of putting ourselves in tune with them, and of vibrating in unison with people who surround us. This is an intuition of their feeling; it is a divination; it is a communion. This gift will be found in all its richness with all the English novelists, and especially with George Eliot. Nothing equals the sympathy with which she speaks of children, of their thoughts, their impressions, and their infinite despairs. Now is it not clear that this depth of sympathy is nothing but a tenacity and similar intensity of the memory? For indeed to enter into the sentiments of others there is hardly any other means than that of having felt them yourself and of afterward recalling them; one cannot share a grief without causing a similar grief to arise in one's self. This is why people who have suffered little are hardly capable of pity, and likewise those who poorly remember their sufferings; this is also the reason why we have sympathy only for the griefs we have experienced.

With sympathy is closely connected two very precious qualities of mind. penetration and delicacy. Penetration is a peculiar power of analysis by which the mind ascends to the hidden principles of phenomena and especially to the secret motives of action. The penetrating observer is he who divines the deep sentiments of men, the thoughts that they dare not confess to themselves, their secret hankerings, and their hidden pains. Now how can he do this? He cannot guess the emotions that he is ignorant of; to guess them he must have experienced them himself; so that to penetrate the emotions of others is in fact to recall similar emotions that one has felt. Penetration is therefore nothing but a vivid and tenacious memory of our own states of mind.

Delicacy also is derived from sympathy. Delicacy is so precise an intuition of the sensibility of others that nothing that can shock them or even imperceptibly slight them escapes us. Delicate beings are recognized by never causing discord. They instinctively put themselves into harmony with other souls. They feel too keenly the suffering, the wounding of self-esteem, the pain of heart that a word or a smile may cause; they have not the courage to pronounce that word or to show that smile. This quality, perhaps the most exquisite of all, is again essentially a quality of the memory; in order to spare others the smallest slight it is necessary first of all to recall those from which one has personally suffered.

Who does not know that to succeed in any task, in any occupation, in any art, we are secretly aided by men whom we have seen successful therein. These live in our memory and are inspirations at times dangerous, but often fruitful. An orator carries in himself the recollection of another orator who once roused his enthusiasm. Comedians are haunted by certain glorious examples which inspire them. Every one of us in his daily conduct secretly takes his bearings from some ideal, real and seductive, that he has sometime met with. Influences felt in youth are the most power-

ful and the most durable. Sometimes three or four personalities that we then admired accompany us all our lives, ruling in our memories; in certain circumstances we see them come out of the darkness and act before us; and at certain moments it seems to us that these men speak in us, that they are really present in us, that we are only one with them, that we are they.

Indeed into all our most brilliant qualities the functions of the memory enter as an essential element. These functions are much more precious than we generally believe. I should like to prove now that it is they which form the accuracy of the mind. It is clear that in order to judge we always rest upon our recollections. It is an axiom of common sense that in order to ripen the judgment experience is necessary. Our opinions, our convictions, our theories have value only from the experience that they sum up. When I put forth an opinion on life, on men, on women, on art, that opinion has no interest unless it is based on exact memories of particular cases clearly observed. If I assert at random my assertion may be correct, just as one may hit the target if he fires with his eyes shut; but this has no value. Our practical judgments, especially our judgments as to the conduct to be chosen in a certain case, are worth just the amount of experience they stand for; my resolution is the wiser according as I have before my mind the consequences of similar resolutions.

Perhaps the most important of our judgments—those that we express upon men and women with whom life brings us into contact—do not become trustworthy until very late—until we have lived long enough and have suffered enough and remembered enough. To judge a man, to guess what we may expect of him, whether he is worthy of our esteem and confidence, and whether he will be a friend or an enemy—what is more serious and more vital? Now to judge a man is to compare him with men we have known, to make him resemble such and such specimens of humanity that we have already observed. Is it not evident, then, that without long experience we shall always run

the risk of being grossly mistaken? All our judgments depend, therefore, on our experience; they derive from that their value and their trustworthiness. Now what is experience if it is not a treasure more or less rich of recollections?

An exact mind is not only one which has knowledge and experience; it is one that sees the objections. The inaccurate minds are those that are too narrow, too much absorbed by their own idea and no longer able to see the weaknesses of it. They have no idea of the objections to be made to them. They do not perceive the argument or the fact that contradicts them. Many women well endowed in other respects judge badly for this reason: they see their own idea very clearly, but they see it detached and isolated from the rest. The surroundings, the contrary idea, the difficulty, the different ways of seeing it, escape them; fixed at their own point of view, they do not dream that any one can place himself at any other.

As a rule we avoid this error only by thinking of the objection soon enough. An opinion is presented to us in the course of a conversation or a meditation; this opinion has a certain air of truth, and we have a tendency to accept it for the sole reason that it is clearly outlined before us, or in us, and that it does not too harshly offend good sense. But at this moment we recall an exact fact which contradicts that opinion; we reject the opinion and the mistake is avoided. If this objection had not come to us, or had come too late, the error would have been committed. It is necessary, then, in order to judge well that the fortunate objections easily spring up in our mind. Now whence do these objections spring up if it is not from the depths of our memory?

Therefore we juggle with words when we oppose the judgment to the memory; when we say that the one loses what the other gains. In fact judgment, like the most brilliant faculties of the mind, is based upon the memory. It is not accurate unless the memory is rich. It is not sure unless the memory is prompt. Its value is whatever the memory is worth.

We speak of certain persons in whom the

memory suffocates the judgment. It is impossible to take this figure seriously. The truth is, one may with a very good memory have a very false judgment. But the excellence of the memory is not the cause of the falsity of the judgment. Those who, in spite of an excellent memory, judge badly would judge much worse if they lacked memory. There is a gross mistake here as to cause. People will explain to us that the mind, in spite of a bad memory, may be accurate, and they will tell us of the part played by the will. They will tell us that the will, the final master of our beliefs, may avoid mistakes whatever may be our ignorance; that we may make up for a lack of recollection by our energy, prudence, and patience.

It is true that judging and forming a belief are acts of the will. This must be recognized and admitted. The will is of great account in our judgment. Without will power there is no truly accurate mind. Will power is necessary, but it is not sufficient, at least in the practical reality. Theoretically we maintain that it is sufficient. Strictly speaking I may choose an opinion although everything shows it to me to be false, and this is the *credo etsi absurdum* of every faith. Strictly speaking again one may refuse to believe an opinion although everything confirms it, and this is the attitude of absolute skepticism. But these are purely theoretical cases, or at least quite exceptional. In practice the choice of an opinion depends always on some reasons which do not constrain us, but influence us, and these reasons are furnished us in some degree by the memory.

What are the reasons for the current prejudice against memory? Why are we not more proud of our memory? Why do we so easily speak well or ill of it?

The first reason is, memory is necessary but not sufficient; one may have an astonishing memory and a very false judgment, which happens quite often, and such cases are apt to depreciate the memory. One may in fact have an astonishing memory and have no energy, no patience, and no force of attention; then the over-hasty

judgment always lacks certainty. One is satisfied with an opinion before having truly mastered it, or one has not the courage to reject an error that one loves. We may also with an excellent memory have a heart that is too passionate; to be passionate is equivalent to having a bad memory, for passion removes and darkens all the recollections which displease us, and this is the same as if the recollections did not exist.

It is proper here perhaps to consider the rôle of memory in humanity. Memory is always terribly fallible; it is such a complicated and delicate mechanism that it is out of order every moment; even where it acts best it is of an irregularity and uncertainty that cause despair; so much so that all men who reflect finally come to assert nothing seriously on the strength of their recollection. Therefore as long as our memory remains what it is we shall remain, however great our prudence and our energy, liable to gross mistakes.

But it is not at all evident that the human memory is to remain forever what it is; it seems, on the contrary, that it may, like every other useful characteristic, become stronger and stronger in the struggle for life, from generation to generation. We may imagine without difficulty a humanity in the future in which the memory would be much more docile, more faithful, and more prompt than it is in the best endowed among us. And it is certain that the efforts of our reason must be in this direction. We shall strive for it in taking a clearer account

of the rôle of memory; in perfecting it in ourselves; in not fearing to cultivate it much in children and young people. Educators ought to know this and not imagine that it is more distinguished to disdain memory. The evil lies in a certain mechanical and servile style of appealing to the memory, or of loading it with useless details. The real masters know how to exercise it while stimulating reflection; to enrich it without encumbering it.

This will be one of the most efficacious means of striving for the general progress of the human intellect. Our judgment depends, as we have seen, on two essential conditions—the energy of the will and the certainty of the memory; it is therefore through these that it is necessary to act on the understanding. To fortify the will is not merely to strengthen the qualities properly moral, such as courage, patience, and self-possession; it is to assure the strength of the intellect itself. To cultivate the memory is not to cultivate an inferior faculty, but the most noble, the most useful, and the most brilliant. The two lines of training are complements of each other and restrain each other; an energetic will guarantees the character against the invasion of recollections, a rich and ready memory serves as a ballast to the will. All instruction, then, might be summed up in these two maxims: create wills as strong and as patient, make memories as rich, as faithful, and as prompt, as the plasticity of the human brain will permit.

THE SOCIAL LIFE OF ANCIENT GREECE.

BY PROFESSOR EDWARD CAPPS, PH.D.

OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO.

THE following sketch of the social life of the Greeks will aim to present the subject in its broad outlines, with a view to furnishing such information on the mental and moral characteristics of the people, their daily occupations and amusements, their homes and family relations, as will help one to understand better their

eventful and instructive history and to appreciate their marvelous literature.

The scope of this presentation must be limited to the classical period; that is, to the one hundred and fifty years lying between the Persian Wars¹ and Alexander the Great. For this period alone is our information in any degree complete. The classical period

besides embraces all that was noblest and best in Greek life and thought before the Christian era.

The state of society in various parts of Greece varied largely according to differences in race and environment. The country folk of Bœotia² could no more be compared with the cosmopolitan Athenian than the native of New Mexico with the Bostonian, nor was the Athenian more like the Spartan³ than the northerner is like the southerner. In order, therefore, to avoid the mistake not infrequently committed of judging a whole people by a single community the following account is restricted to the people of Athens alone.

We should doubtless understand Greek history as a whole much better if we were as well acquainted with Bœotian and Spartan customs as with Athenian. But the materials from which our knowledge is derived are almost exclusively about the Athenians and of Attic⁴ origin. Even the documents from which we reconstruct the picture of Athenian life are far inferior to the systematic descriptions of eye-witnesses which teach us to know modern peoples.

In the Age of Pericles⁵ the population of Athens, which reflected in the completest sense the life of Attica, was about 550,000. Of this number only about 25,000 were citizens, while 10,000 were resident foreigners and over 400,000 slaves. We can readily imagine the state of society in a city where there were four slaves to every man, woman, and child of the native population. Manual labor was despised. The well-to-do lived in luxury, while even the middle and poorer classes enjoyed almost equally with the rich the luxury of leisure; for the cost of living was but a few cents a day. Wealth and leisure in a people that could never be accused of being naturally sluggish or lazy contributed in many ways to a high degree of culture. Literature and the fine arts flourished. Politics and the courts of law occupied every citizen. Wars and garrison duty kept a large number constantly employed, and still men had time to lounge about the market-place and the gymnasium,⁶ gossiping, discussing politics, or, if seriously inclined,

listening to the philosophical talks of a Socrates or an Aristotle.

The average citizen of Athens had a far deeper personal interest in public affairs than is general nowadays. Every citizen was a member of the *Ecclesia*, the principal legislative assembly. This assembly, in which all questions affecting international relations and internal affairs were freely discussed, and whose membership included the greatest statesmen, philosophers, poets, historians, and lawyers, must have exercised a powerful educational influence upon the masses. The opinion is often expressed that the average intelligence of the Athenians at the time of Pericles was greater than that of the British Parliament of to-day. There is a large degree of truth in this statement. These same men who sat in the frequent meetings of the *Ecclesia* served almost daily in the courts of law as jurymen, and were unusually familiar, for laymen, with the intricacies of law and legal procedure. From youth up they were drilled in military and naval tactics. By reason of constant warfare and an extended commerce they gained much of that knowledge of the world which travel gives. But beyond all this the average citizen was well versed in the extensive literature of his race, and had no little knowledge and appreciation of what was best in art, music, and architecture.

The presence of a large body of foreigners who had no prospect of naturalization, but who lived in Athens only to make money in trade and manufacture, had a noticeable effect on the social life of the people. Their wealth and prosperity created an envy and a class hatred which broke out against them in times of political disturbances. The Greek as a race had always shown a frank contempt for the "barbarian." But the barbarian race which aroused this feeling more than all others was the Persian.

A large part of the business of manufacturing and practically all of the shopkeeping were in the hands of the resident foreigners. The rich citizens had their country estates from which they derived a revenue, and many had money invested in merchandizing

and mining. The direct management of business, however, was intrusted to trained slaves, and the capitalist thus had leisure for public affairs. Through the wisdom of Themistocles⁷ the whole nation, we may say, had become a seafaring people, and the harbor of Peiræus⁸ swarmed with merchantmen which visited all the ports of the Mediterranean. The great bankers of Athens and of her seaport drew exchange on every business country in the commercial world.

A seafaring nation is bound to become highly civilized as compared with its agricultural neighbors. Its citizens come in contact with the most advanced people of other nations, as Greece came in contact, for example, with Egypt and Phenicia, and appropriated the best results of their civilization. Imported luxuries soon become the necessities of life. The advantages of a large commerce for the maintenance of a high state of culture was fully appreciated by the Athenians themselves. Isocrates,⁹ in his famous panegyric, boasts of the Piræus "which Athens had established in the midst of Greece as a great emporium where everything could be obtained that all the world furnished."

So extensive a commerce, maintained for many centuries, must have been built up on the basis of good business methods, commercial integrity, and a stable medium of exchange. The assertion has been made by an able and widely-known writer on this subject that the Greeks were neither capable nor honest in business. Although in those days our ideal of business honor had not been reached nor business methods so highly developed, and though successful cheating may not have been considered dishonorable, yet the facts that have been dwelt upon may be considered sufficient proof that Athens was in advance of her neighbors both in business capacity and in honorable dealing. And one important fact does not rest upon inference alone: we know that the democracy of Athens, from the time of Solon¹⁰ down to Alexander, never tampered with the currency to debase it at the expense of her creditors, as almost every nation in Europe has done.

In politics the Greek was not above reproach. An extreme democratic government brought many temptations in his way which he was too often not patriotic enough to resist. Demagogues led them into causeless foreign wars, and corrupted them in various ways. The commonest and most effective form of bribe was the institution of pay for public service in the Assembly and on the jury, and in this one demagogue outdid the other. Soon the Athenians came to look upon the government as legitimate prey. With larger pay for performing their duty came direct largesses from the public treasury, such as admission money to the theater. Instead of equal taxation levied according to wealth, the rich alone were made to bear the burdens for all. No wonder that a people bred to so paternal a government should finally have accepted bribes from the enemy, and should have proved false to their allies, nor that Aristotle should have regarded democracy as a disease of government.

The religion of the Athenians can be treated here only in its social aspects. The old implicit faith in the gods and the myths that enveloped them was gradually losing its hold upon thinking people. The crude notions of morality which underlay the current stories of the envious, adulterous, mischief-making gods had given place, if not to a higher accepted standard of morals for mankind, at least to a growing feeling that the gods should be better than men in moral principle and in conduct. These old stories which had brought the gods down to the low level of human passions were now discredited by the better people, and the blame of their invention was laid upon the poets. This points to an improved moral state of society. Whether the average man was purer in his life than his forefathers had been may perhaps be doubted, but at least his conscience was being developed.

By the side of this change in theological belief came a more serious view of the future life and a belief in happiness after death for those who had lived aright, or at least for those who had been taught aright. A spirit of mysticism in ritual and in creed

arose, which finally pervaded the whole eastern world and left a lasting impression upon Christianity. The common people, however, probably continued to believe, as they had always believed, in their gods with human weaknesses.

The worship of the gods played a large part not only in the daily life of the individual but also in the life of society as a whole. Many festivals had been established in their honor, at which the ceremonies partook more of a profane than of a religious character, as we should regard it. Splendid processions filed through the narrow streets with magnificent pageantry, bearing a gift to some god or goddess. How imposing such processions were we are able to judge from the matchless frieze of the Parthenon.¹¹ Songs composed by the best poets were rendered by choruses of men and boys carefully trained to accompany the words by the rhythmic movements of the dance. These choruses contested for a prize offered by the state, and the victory brought a coveted honor to the tribe whose chorus received the award. Then there were contests for players on the flute and lyre, recitations by professional rhapsodists from the Homeric poems, and hymns and processions of every description.

But by far the greatest festivals were those in honor of the god Dionysus, the god of the vine. They were distinguished by contests of tragic and comic poets.

The program of the great festival in March deserves special description. In the spring of the year, when the sea was again open to commerce and all the allies brought in their tribute money, when the fields and roadsides, hills and valleys were covered again with an indescribable profusion of wild flowers, thousands of visitors from the whole Greek world came to Athens to take part in this, the Easter festival of the ancients.

On the opening day a brilliant procession made its way from the grove of the Academy outside the walls, bearing the ancient image of the god to his temple, in whose precinct was the great theater, built

on the slope of the Acropolis. After the installation of the god came the contests of the ten lyric choruses of men and boys. Thousands of people in the vast crowd of spectators had relatives in these choruses, and waited with intense interest the decision of the judges. Then for several days, from early morning till the setting of the sun, the people watched the performance of the tragedies and comedies which have been the wonder of mankind from that day till now. This was the crowning event of the festival. For months afterward the plays then produced formed the common theme of conversation, while favorite passages and melodies from the tragedies were on everybody's lips.

We can hardly place too high an estimate upon the culture of a people which enjoyed so keenly and appreciated so thoroughly entertainments of so high an order. A modern audience would probably find them stupid.

We have seen how large a part in the life of the Athenian was played by religious ceremonies. They were not merely his worship but his recreation as well. Doubtless the very fact of their association with religion kept them from degenerating to a class of performance corresponding to the ordinary city theater of the present day. There were in the best of them, it is true, elements which we should find low and disgusting, especially in comedy, so that we cannot but wonder how such things could be tolerated in the worship of the gods. It may be well to add that we must not suppose, because the most important festivals were held in honor of the god of wine, that the people were given to intemperate habits. The Greeks were never an intemperate people, though they always used wine. Drunkenness was always looked upon as distinctly unbecoming a gentleman. The man who drank wine mixed with less than an equal amount of water was considered guilty of a gross impropriety.

Closely associated with religious festivals, but not a part of the worship, were the great athletic meetings in which every Greek took special delight. At the games held at Olym-

pia, Delphi, Corinth, and at Nemea representatives of all the Greek states were admitted, and the names of the victors in the various contests—running, wrestling, boxing, and chariot-racing—were heralded throughout Greece and the victors themselves treated with unusual honors by their own states. The victory in the two hundred yard dash was considered the greatest. The other games were thoroughly democratic, but chariot-racing was confined to wealthy aristocrats because of the enormous expense of maintaining stables.

The other social amusements, apart from those offered at the festivals, were more like those of to-day—dinner parties, enlivened by the presence of noted talkers, by music, dancing, conjuring, and fortune-telling, evenings at the clubs, games of chance, and the like. Possibly the festivities connected with weddings should be classed among the amusements of the women. Of course the children had their games of ball, hoops, astragals,¹² swings, and dolls. The boys played in the streets.

The education of the Athenian boy was supervised with the greatest care, but not by the state as at Sparta. He applied himself early to the poets, above all to Homer. Many a young man was able to repeat all of the *Iliad* and *Odyssey* from memory. Their instruction included interpretation as well as memorizing. The boy was expected to be able to draw lessons from the passages read, very much as our children learn golden texts. The poems of Homer often demanded the most difficult kind of exegesis—that which gets from a text a meaning which it does not contain, in order to get moral instruction from an immoral passage. The subtle mind of the Greek was generally found equal to this task. But some parents with more conscience, or perhaps less faith in the value of such mental gymnastics, preferred to cut out objectionable passages.

Study of the poets was included in the general branch of instruction called "letters" or "grammar," which embraced reading and writing as well. Young men who looked forward to politics or law as a career might attend the expensive lectures of the noted

sophists of the day, such men as Gorgias and Isocrates, who taught rhetoric, elocution, logic, and pleading. Special attention was given to music and gymnastics and some knowledge was required in mathematics, or "geometry," as they termed it. This included elementary arithmetic and a little practical astronomy, sufficient, for example, to enable one to tell the time by the position of the sun, moon, and stars at all seasons of the year. The mental discipline derived from this study was probably considerable, however little advanced it may seem. Multiplication and division, for example, were by no means the easy processes we find them, with our simple decimal system.

Music included lyric poetry and the chanting and dancing with which it was often accompanied. The characteristic story is told of Alcibiades that he objected to the flute, which was a favorite instrument with the Bæotians, because it distorted his mouth and thus detracted from his beauty while playing it. Gymnastics occupied a large portion of the time. The main object was to secure a sound body and the physical beauty which was thought to be the normal attribute of a healthy man. The element of sport, however, was distinctly encouraged by competitive contests.

Of the education of the girls at Athens little is known. While at Sparta they were brought up as similarly as possible to the boys, in Athens they were taught to make themselves useful in the household, to spin, weave, and embroider, and were kept secure from contact with the outside world.

Perhaps the most significant index to the state of social life and of culture is the position of women. Since Homer's day times had changed distinctly for the worse. In the court life of Agamemnon and Odysseus¹³ the woman played an important part. She mingled freely with the men, and yet was treated by them with chivalrous respect and consideration. Her counsel and society were sought, and she was considered the companion of man if not his equal. This state of affairs seems to have continued among the upper classes at Sparta alone. But there the women became masculine in

many ways and were believed to lead their husbands a life which the Athenian gentlemen did not envy. The Athenians, on the other hand, became more and more oriental, so that Pericles could define the ideal woman as one who was least spoken of among men whether for praise or for blame. Similarly Euripides, in one of his tragedies, put into the mouth of the model wife, Andromache, this list of woman's virtues: faithful attention to household affairs, staying at home, avoidance of advanced ideas and of all education except that provided by common sense as a teacher, silence, a modest demeanor, and tact in avoiding quarrels with the husband.

This picture may be a trifle overdrawn as a reflection of actual life, but it is clearly the poet's ideal. But although woman's sphere was thus limited, and she was not allowed to leave the house except for weddings, funerals, festivals, and the like, yet those occasions came so frequently that confinement to the house involved comparatively little hardship. Women were admitted to the great dramatic exhibitions, which undoubtedly contributed in no small degree to their culture. Yet the mournful fact remains that respectable women were not socially a part of the life of their husbands. Housekeeping and the rearing of children were regarded as their function in life. The men were left free to find intellectual companionship among their fellows and in the society of a class of brilliant and accomplished women outside the pale of respectability. Thus, while we read a great deal in Greek litera-

ture about their "companions," we seldom find an allusion to their wives. The question of granting greater rights and broader privileges to women seems to have been agitated, but was frowned upon by the men and apparently bore no fruit.

We have then to picture to ourselves a highly cultivated society in classical Athens, a society blessed with leisure to pursue the arts, literature, philosophy, and politics, and devoted to the attainment of all that was best in each. A versatile and energetic people, in spite of many temptations to an idle and dissolute life, they succeeded in attaining an unusual degree of intellectual culture through all classes of society. Through their oriental ideas about women, on the other hand, they lost much of the refinement and moral culture which distinguishes the best modern society. One might also instance their inhumanity toward their slaves and captives by war and their tolerance of the exposure of infants—remnants of the barbarism of their ancestors of which they never rid themselves.

Though spoiled by an extreme democracy controlled too often by demagogues, and consequently lacking in the pure patriotism which characterizes the statesmen of modern England, they adhered to strict business principles in all that concerned their business relations. Even in their amusements they were distinguished above most peoples ancient and modern. Such was the people who have exercised so powerful and beneficent an influence on the best civilizations since their day.

THE RISE AND FALL OF NEW FRANCE.

BY FREDERICK J. TURNER, PH.D.

PROFESSOR OF AMERICAN HISTORY IN THE UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

II.

WHILE they occupied the trade centers of the Great Lakes and the Mississippi, the French pushed on into the far West. Two motives guided this advance: the hope of opening trade connections with Mexico, and the search for

the Sea of the West. When New Orleans was founded, in 1717, and Law's Mississippi Company was formed to support French credit on the basis of the mines, the pearls, and the buffalo wool of Louisiana, the desire of opening trade with the Spanish colony was not forgotten. Expeditions to

this end were sent up the Red River, the Kansas, the Platte, and the Arkansas. In 1739 the Mallet brothers reached and traded with Santa Fé. In the meantime the Missouri had been ascended to the vicinity of Bismarck, in the hope that its course would be found to turn toward New Mexico.

In the Northwest another series of expeditions, conducted by Vérendrye and his sons, had led to the erection of posts at Rainy Lake, Lake of the Woods, Lake Winnipeg, and Lake Manitoba, all stages of an advance in search of the Pacific. At last, in 1743, French exploration reached the mountain barrier, when the Vérendrye brothers saw the Big Horn range.

Thus New France had spread throughout the Mississippi basin; but while this expansion had been going on the valley of the Ohio was left unguarded, and at its sources the frontiersmen were gathering, stalwart foes of the wilderness and the Indian, ready to strike this attenuated line of trading posts in its center and cut New France apart. Let us turn to note the stages in the contests between the French and the English colonies.

Two primary elements of opposition are revealed in these wars, determining the form of the struggle and the points of attack: the rivalry over the fur trade on the part of the colonies that adjoined the interior water system of New France, and the contest for the control of the fisheries on the part of New England. Neither of these interests could call out the combined effort of the disunited English colonies, while they constituted the very life of New France.

It would be a mistake to look upon these wars as conscious efforts on the part of either the French or the English government to secure territory for agricultural occupation. On the part of the authorities the struggle was predominantly a contest for trade. Governor Spotswood, of Virginia, who had led a noteworthy expedition across the Blue Ridge in 1716, put the English view of the situation, four years later, when he wrote:

The danger which threatens these, His Majesty's plantations, from this new settlement is also very considerable, for by the conveniency of the lakes they do in a manner surround all the British plantations. They have it in their power by these lakes and the many rivers running into them and into the Mississippi to engross all the trade of the Indian nations which are now supplied from hence.

While there were permanent local reasons for collision between the French and English colonies, the wars which broke out were accompaniments of the European wars between the two rivals. When William of Orange and Louis XIV. engaged in the War of the Palatinate (1689-97) King William's War broke out in America. The aged Frontenac was recalled from his seven years' retirement and was given instructions to expel the English from Hudson Bay and to capture New York, thus cutting off the English line of trade that tapped the St. Lawrence and the Great Lakes. Neither of these measures was successful; the Iroquois proved an effective barrier between the French and the English, they formed connections with the Fox Indians in Wisconsin and thus interrupted the Fox and Wisconsin route to the Mississippi, and they cut off the northwestern tribes from the goods of the French. "They have powder and iron," complained an Ottawa deputy; "how can we sustain ourselves? Have compassion on us, and consider that it is no easy matter to kill men with clubs." New England sent a fleet under Phips and struck a blow for her fisheries by reducing Acadia, but failed to capture Quebec. Frontenac's successes consisted in such massacres as those at Schenectady and Salmon Falls, but above all in the campaigns that broke the power of the Iroquois.

The peace of Ryswick (1697) restored the conquests of both parties. But it was no more than a truce, for the War of the Spanish Succession was reflected in America by Queen Anne's War (1702-13). During the longer portion of this war peace existed between Canada and New York, because the French traders did not desire to arouse the Iroquois and interrupt the supply of English goods, carried by neutral Indians acting as middlemen. The stress of the

war fell on the frontiers of New England, as at Wells, Casco, Deerfield, and Haverhill—attacks conducted with the purpose of attaching New England Indians to the French. In 1710 the English took the stronghold of Acadia (Port Royal) and the peace of Utrecht recognized England's possession of Hudson Bay, Acadia (Nova Scotia), and Newfoundland.

To preserve a hold on the fisheries France fortified Louisburg, on Cape Breton Island, and denied the limits claimed for Nova Scotia by the English. In the interior the years following the peace of Utrecht were occupied, as we have seen, by increasing the control over the strategic points for the fur trade and in expanding into the vast wilderness. When the War of the Austrian Succession came America was soon swept into it, under the name of King George's War (1744-48). Under the lead of New England Louisburg was taken and Canada threatened, but the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle provided for the restoration of this defense of the fisheries to the French.

By this time the English traders had taken possession of the Ohio valley, and behind them was the comparatively compact and extensive population of the thirteen colonies. The frontiersmen were looking for land rather than for Indian trade, and the final struggle was at hand. What were the colonial traits of the two peoples that now fronted each other in this contest for the continent?

The English farmers and seamen stood for the ideals of political freedom and local self-government. They were implacable foes to the Indian and to the wilderness—a solid, substantial people, hewing out homes for their race. They lacked in picturesque elements, but what they took they held and reduced for the purposes of civilization. Acquiring industrial power and discipline in their narrow country between the Alleghany Mountains and the Atlantic, they now numbered something more than a million; their expansion was to be irresistible.

The French habitants and fur traders

were about 80,000, scattered through a continent and organized in the two provinces Canada and Louisiana.

The political life of New France was a modification of the France of the old *régime*. A centralized autocracy converging in the king was the form of their government. "Let every one speak for himself and no one for all," had commanded Colbert, when he forbade legislative organization for the colony. Local self-government did not exist; the seignior on his estate and the village priest and commandant looked after local concerns, subject to minute orders from the governor or the king's ministers. The latter officials did not hesitate to pass upon such petty details as the number of pickets to be placed in a stockade at Sault Ste. Marie, or to require the commandant to refrain from raising wheat, which the wise minister declared unfitted for that region! As in the Old World, French local government was directed by the authorities most remote from the locality.

By making the fur trade a monopoly the government hampered and harmed the vital industry of the colony, while the habitant was hedged in by irksome dues to the seignior, or lord of the estate, and the noblesse and the habitant were divided by sharp social lines. With the great authority and vigor of the clergy adding to these restraints it is not surprising that the free life of the forest fur trade increased the numbers of the *coureurs de bois* and the *voyageurs*, whose birch canoes skirted the clear waters of the Great Lakes or floated to the tune of the gay boating songs down the rivers of the West. Boon companions of the Indians, they ate and drank and sang and fought side by side with their savage brothers, married with them and took up their life. The gay, adaptable Frenchman was no wilderness conqueror. Said Duquesne to the Indians in 1754:

Are you ignorant of the difference between the king of England and the king of France? Go see the forts that our king has established, and you will see that you can still hunt under their very walls. They have been placed for your advantage in places which you frequent. The English, on the contrary, are no sooner in possession of a place

than the game is driven away. The forest falls before them as they advance, and the soil is laid bare, so that you can scarce find the wherewithal to erect a shelter for the night.

When George Washington came through the snows of December, 1753, to the trader-commandant at Fort Leboeuf, at the portage between the sources of the Ohio River and a tributary of Lake Erie, and in the name of the governor of Virginia demanded that the French withdraw from the valley of the Ohio, he was the herald of English civilization proclaiming war against the French ideals. He was the prophet of a new era for the West.

In the war that followed, the traders struggled to defend their trade. From the remote parts of the Northwest they led their Indians to the battles for the retention of the strategic trading points that they had seized. The campaigns centered about these key-points of the Indian trade. But at last on the Heights of Abraham the final act came in this great drama, and the keeping of the prairies and the plains, the mountains and the valleys of the continent passed forever from the French to the people of the English tongue.

When at the close of the Seven Years' War France yielded her territory on the North American continent to England and Spain, she left but faint evidences of her former possession. Of the French population of eighty thousand souls which had spread over the vast area less than fifteen thousand dwelt in the present territory of the United States. In the vicinity of Detroit were perhaps two thousand; Kaskaskia, Cahokia, and the outlying villages in the Illinois country included about as many more; while in Vincennes and the lesser posts of Indiana were nearly the same number. Soon after the war a considerable number of French settlers crossed the Mississippi into the province of Louisiana, then transferred by France to Spain, and thus insured the growth of the fur-trading village of St. Louis. The French whites at New Orleans and along the lower Mississippi may be reckoned at about seven thousand. This included some six or

seven hundred Acadians, who after their banishment by the English had found refuge along the bayous and on the prairies of the Attakapas and Opelousas' regions of Louisiana. Scattered through the north-western woods were wandering French traders, who for the most part could claim a residence either in Canada or the villages already mentioned. Among the Indians there was growing up a considerable half-breed population, the offspring of the ubiquitous *voyageurs* and their Indian mates.

This was not a very substantial showing after a century of occupation. For all the daring, distant explorations of the gentry, for all the devoted wanderings of the missionaries, for all the forest traffic of the gay *voyageurs* along the western streams, there could be shown only a few lonely and deserted posts and little villages. Perhaps the most enduring evidence of the French dominion in the United States is found in the names upon the map.

At the time of its cession to Spain, in 1762, New Orleans contained about two thousand French settlers, and from its position and the character of its population it had precedence among these settlements. Already it had become the depot of trade for the Mississippi Valley with France and the West Indies, exporting indigo, deer-skins, lumber, and naval stores. The villages of the interior were much alike. Agriculture struggled with the Indian trade for ascendancy. Along the village river front were the log houses, with their orchards and outlying buildings, while the farms ran back side by side from the river, in ribbon-like strips about two hundred feet wide and from two to six miles long.* In some villages the rules regarding the management of these farms, the regulations for plowing, planting, and harvesting, were made and administered by a village council; but the local commandants had the civil authority, while the priests served as mediators in disputes. Besides these fields there was the village commons, the collec-

* See American State Papers, "Public Lands," Vol. II., p. 166 (edition of 1834), for map of Cahokia. The farms vary in different villages.

tive property of the settlers, for wood and pasturage.

The men were picturesquely clothed in *capotes* and moccasins, with earrings and black queues. They drove their two-wheeled pony carts, plowed their fields with clumsy wooden-wheeled plows, fastened by rawhide harnesses to the oxen's horns, and lived a simple, careless life in their prairie homes. There were some rich men among them, such as the Kaskaskia farmer who owned eighty slaves.

But the fur trade constituted the most typical industry of the Frenchmen of the interior. Picturesque in gaudy turbans or betinseled hats, they manned the birch trading canoes in crews of eight, shipped their load of axes, guns, and powder, kegs of brandy, coarse cloths, and blankets, trinkets, and provisions, and started from the depots of trade to greet the Indians as they left for the hunting grounds in the fall. The paddles beat time to rollicking songs; every two miles they stopped for a three-minutes' smoke or "pipe." Carrying the canoe across the portages, and running the rapids, reckless of their soakings, they reached the lesser villages and divided the cargo into smaller craft to visit the numerous trading posts at the Indian villages or hunting grounds. It was a wild, free life, and the forest trade left its impression on Indian industrial life, as well as produced a trained body of boatmen, packmen, and guides for the later British and American traders and explorers in the far West. Many a town in the interior dates its annals from the advent of these Indian traders, whose posts became the nuclei of settlements.

The part played by France in American history in the years that followed the downfall of her colony was an important one. The American Revolution gave to her statesmen an opportunity for revenge upon England which they were not slow to embrace. But the treaty of alliance made with us in 1778 was designed to humble Great Britain and create a weak and dependent ally of France rather than to erect a powerful democracy. The government of the old

régime had no republican illusions, as Vergennes² showed in the negotiations over the treaty of peace, when he aimed to restrict our boundaries to the Alleghanies and desired to deprive us of the navigation of the Mississippi and of the fisheries. But with the people of France it was different, and the army officers imbibed revolutionary enthusiasm in their service here, and in their travels after the war, that had important influence in shaping the course of the French Revolution.

Lafayette's part in that struggle is well known. The Lameth³ brothers who served in Rochambeau's army also won distinction in the French Revolution. Charles sat in the States-General, was instrumental in the arrest of the king, and served as president of the Assembly; Alexander was also an eloquent member of the States-General. Brissot de Warville,⁴ whose American travels are well known, became the advocate of French war against Europe and drafted the declaration against England; and Volney, another sojourner here, was a member of Napoleon's senate.

It was natural, therefore, that the more democratic elements in America sympathized with the French in their European struggle that ensued. American politics were profoundly affected by this Old World duel. For nearly a quarter of a century the antagonisms of the friends of France and the friends of England were among the most important issues that shaped and kept in conflict the Democratic-Republican and Federalist parties.

In these formative years of our nation a portion of the French element in the United States played an important part. French Huguenots, whom Louis XIV.'s revocation of the Edict of Nantes had driven out, had scattered themselves among the colonies and now produced notable public men.

Among the leaders of Protestant French descent, in this era, were three presidents of the old Congress, Laurens, Boudinot, and Jay, the last named being also one of our ablest diplomats and first chief justice of the federal Supreme Court; Manigault, who loaned his great fortune to the revolu-

tionary cause in South Carolina; Marion, "the Swamp Fox"; Paul Revere, the "midnight messenger"; Sevier, the dashing Indian fighter, hero of King's Mountain, and governor of the state of Franklin;⁵ Faneuil, giver of the "cradle of liberty" to Boston; Freneau, the poet. Statesmen like Bayard, Bowdoin, and Gouverneur Morris (who gave the literary form to the Constitution of the United States) were of Huguenot descent. Perhaps the French blood in our diplomats, Jay, Bayard, and Olney, aided them to cope with European ambassadors. It is not without significance that in the veins of two of our greatest financiers and administrators, Hamilton and Gallatin, flowed French blood. The same French element was inherited by Longfellow and Whittier, Maury, of the signal service, Agassiz, the scientist, Presidents Tyler and Garfield, Chauncy M. Depew, Legare,⁶ Bishop Vincent, Gallaudet, and many others of note.

It is significant that the French Huguenots won their influence in our history not by acting as a separate people but by assimilating themselves to American life. They found themselves by losing themselves.

The French element in the United States at the present time embraces various groups. The French of Louisiana include the dwellers in and around the picturesque old capital of New Orleans—exotic among American cities with its French survivals, its dream of past commercial dominion, and its vision of future power; and the simple and ignorant Acadian farmers, continuing the primitive customs of the basin of Grand Pré, along the tranquil waters of the Têsche, remote from the corroding touch of busy modern life. The *métis*, or half-breeds, also survivals of the old French days, are scattered in considerable numbers through the Northwest, as packmen, boatmen, and lumbermen.

But the most noteworthy French element in the United States at the present time consists in the French Canadians who began about twenty years ago to cross the border into this country. This movement was due in part to the expansive power of

this fecund people and in part to the effort of New England mill-owners to bring them as operatives. The result has been to introduce a new strain of French influence into this country. The United States census of 1890 reports 537,000 white persons having either one or both parents born in Canada and Newfoundland of French extraction. Leading French Canadians deny the correctness of this report, and, on the basis of church records, hold that it should be more than doubled.

The French Canadians are found in greatest numbers in the North Atlantic States and the North Central States. As a rule they are grouped in settlements of their own, aiming to preserve their race, language, customs, and religion.

So pronounced has been this tendency to resist assimilation, so rapid the growth of the French families, that some writers have expressed a fanciful apprehension lest these parochial French communities should connect with the Canadian network of French parishes and form a revived New France on the ruins of Anglo-Saxon New England. Recent studies of the increase of the French Canadians, however, seem to show that the check to population produced by heavy infant mortality overcomes their remarkable birth rate,* and that the tendency to naturalization is increasing. Nor does there seem any evidence that the French leaders desire to do more than to retain their race autonomy in the midst of the American peoples and under American government.

The last United States census also shows here a total population of French having one or both parents born in France amounting to 255,000. If we accept the census report, therefore, the combined French Canadian and French element proper in the United States is nearly 769,000, while Germany, that never had a colony in our territory, shows on the same basis a German element in America of over 6,800,000.

* Families of twenty children are not considered remarkable among the Canadian French. One of the recent prime ministers of Quebec was the twenty-fourth child of the family.

FLAVIA.

BY ANDRÉ THEURIET.

VIII.

FEVERISH or calm, the hours finally glide away. The one fixed for the signing of the contract struck in its turn, and it was with a violent beating of the heart that I accompanied my father to the younger Brocard's house.

We were the first to reach the factory, where Pelagia, the servant, in a new dress made for the occasion showed us into the parlor. This room, which was occupied on high days only, had been aired, scrubbed, and decorated since the evening before. The chairs of garnet-colored velvet stood with their coverings off in a half-circle about the fireplace, which was adorned with green plants. Near one of the windows an arm-chair, intended for Squire Bouchenot, the Ériseul lawyer, lorded it over a card-table covered with an embroidered woolen cloth, which was to be used as a place to sign the contract. The lithographs hung on the walls, representing scenes from one of Scott's novels, the alabaster clock, the vases of artificial flowers, the rug in the middle of the waxed floor which showed a colossal tiger crouching in the jungles, all the furnishings of the room, in short, had about them a ceremonious air which froze my heart. A shudder seized me at the thought of what was going to take place in that solemn parlor. Had Nicholas Brocard answered his brother's request in the affirmative? And if he had refused to advance the dower money what turn would things take? So far as I was concerned the solution, whatever it might be, could only bring vexation of mind. The weather was in harmony with my state of unrest. It had been pouring straight down since early in the morning, heavy black clouds were scudding over the sky, the wind was howling like a tempest, and you could hear it groaning in the chimney. This storm must have delayed the arrival of the guests.

Finally Numa appeared. Was it his frock coat and his black trowsers that made him look pale? His face seemed worn to me, his movements irritable and uneasy. With a nervous loquacity he begged us to excuse the ladies, who were completing their toilets. But while he was making his verbose explanations a rustle of silks announced the approach of Madame Brocard and Flavia. They entered, Madame Lucia all in black watered silk, her daughter dressed in the light gray silk which I had already seen her wear the time she went to Sonilly.

While our parents were talking together I drew my friend aside and whispered in her ear:

"I have something for you—a ring, my betrothal gift. Swear to me that you will always keep it on your finger."

At the same time I slipped into her hand the little silver ring I had bought at Benoite-Vaux. She examined it and smiled.

"Thank you, James! It is very pretty!"

And still smiling she put it on her finger. Her face was radiant and her blue eyes shone like precious stones.

"If you only knew," she added, "how happy I am! Papa has made peace with his brother, mamma has been to call on my aunt, and Uncle Nicholas will come to-day and sign my contract!"

She was jubilant and she had a right to be, since all was now going as she could wish. Happiness made her even prettier than usual. In her egotistical joy she didn't even see how much I was suffering on account of her indifference. She hadn't taken my love seriously, and now she paid no attention to my sorrowful countenance. Even while she was talking to me she would turn her eyes toward the window and seemed to be on the watch.

At that moment a horse's trot was heard and the rolling of a carriage resounded on the cobblestones of the courtyard.

"There they are!" she cried, running to the window and raising a corner of the curtain.

The younger Brocard had rushed out to meet the Saint-Vannes. I could hear the new arrivals in the vestibule. They were taking off their rubber coats and were exclaiming over the bad state of the weather. Shortly afterward the door opened to admit the groom and his parents. M. Bouchenot, the Ériseul lawyer, appeared behind them with his legal papers.

Paul Saint-Vanne came forward, smiling and gallant, close buttoned in his new frock coat and carrying in his gloved hand—the gloves were pearl-gray in color—a large bouquet of Marshal Niel and Pride of Dijon roses. He bowed gayly to his future parents-in-law, bent obsequiously before my father, not quite so low before M. Bouchenot, and deigned to gratify me with a tap on the cheek. He then approached Flavia, presented his bouquet to her, and asked permission to kiss her, to which the cruel one acceded very willingly, blushing with pleasure. Then came the turn of the family, kisses, compliments, introductions, hand-shakes. You could hear nothing but honied words, felicitations, noisy outbursts of laughter. M. Saint-Vanne senior, alert, thin, cautious, preserved under the veneering of a rich tradesman the manners of a shrewd peasant. He had a face like a fox's, pliable and unctuous, with an assumed energy about him that still reflected the cajoling activity of an old real-estate dealer. Madame Saint-Vanne, fat, common, red-faced, too tight in her thick dress of changeable silk, looked like a stout farmer's wife dressed up in her Sunday clothes. After they had exhausted the round of complimentary formulas everybody sat down. The little lawyer, dressed in black with a white tie, settled himself in his armchair, drew from his bag the writings for the contract, and, spreading them on the table, cast at the company a comprehensive and questioning look which seemed to say: "Now we are done with idle words, suppose we come to the point!"

The younger Brocard doubtless read his

impatient glance that way, for he got up nervously and said:

"Lawyer Bouchenot, if the ladies and gentlemen here will permit, and if you consent, we will wait a little while yet. I expect my brother Nicholas, who is to sign the contract, and who can hardly delay much longer."

The lawyer bowed with a smile of consent. This smile after hovering over his thin lips was reflected like a ray of sunlight on the countenances of the three Saint-Vannes. Announcing Nicholas' presence at the contract could not fail indeed to please them. That unexpected intervention indicated that the two brothers had finally become reconciled with each other, and the news of this reconciliation sounded with the clear ring of silver in their ears. They saw in it an unhoped-for windfall. Each thought to himself: "If peace has been made Uncle Brocard will probably remember he is Flavia's godfather. If he has shown a desire to sign the contract it is perhaps because he wishes to place a noteworthy present among the wedding gifts."

"We shall be charmed to see M. Nicholas Brocard," said M. Saint-Vanne senior emphatically, passing the end of his tongue over his crafty lips.

They started the conversation up again with more vigor. Madame Lucia flattered Madame Saint-Vanne to the best of her ability. A little to one side Flavia and Paul coquetted in a low tone of voice, and the young man redoubled his obsequious attentions. My father discussed a question of law with the notary, and M. Saint-Vanne put insinuating questions to Numa Brocard, who answered absent-mindedly. You would have said he was sitting on a hundred needles. He was twisting about on his chair, while his eyes never left the folding door which led from the parlor to the ante-room. He seemed to be counting its very moldings.

Suddenly that door opened. Numa's pale face lighted up for a moment, then with the same quickness took on a disappointed expression, at the sight of Pelagia appearing with a letter in her hand.

"From M. Nicholas," she said to her master.

He had gotten up, and going toward the window he broke the seal of the letter. Pelagia discreetly withdrew.

My eyes remained fixed on poor Numa Brocard as he read, and the mere sight of his disconcerted countenance made me suspect that brother Nicholas' letter bore evil tidings to him. Madame Lucia also suspected it, for her lips had suddenly ceased to smile, and instead of answering Madame Saint-Vanne she was looking anxiously at her husband.

Numa, who had just finished reading the note, was making evident efforts to recover himself, and assuming an indifferent expression he said in a hoarse voice:

"We will not wait for my brother. He is ill and begs to be excused."

This acted like a wet blanket. The Saint-Vannes, whose mouths had been watering for a good fifteen minutes, showed that they were rather disappointed.

"Ah!" barked Saint-Vanne senior, "that's a pity!"

The little lawyer bit his pen and looked over his manuscript.

"In that case," he ventured, "there is no reason why I should not read the contract to the contracting parties, is there M. Brocard?"

"Whenever you please, M. Bouchenot," answered Numa.

The lawyer coughed a little, put his eyeglass on his stubby nose, and mumblingly began to run through the preambles of the writing, the family and Christian names of the contracting parties, those of the fathers and mothers of the bride and groom—"here appearing both to assist their children and to consider the gifts they propose to make to them on the occasion of their marriage." Then he passed to the groom's contribution to the common stock, which consisted of clothes, linen, jewels, firearms and hunting pistols, private library, and so on. Besides, in consideration of the projected union his parents would give to him a sum of forty thousand francs, payable on the day of the wedding.

"As I am in the habit of dealing aboveboard," broke in M. Saint-Vanne with a cunning smile and an apparent good humor, "here is the sum I have promised."

At the same time he took from his pocketbook a bunch of one thousand franc notes and placed it before the lawyer, asking him to verify the amount.

"Perfectly correct!" affirmed lawyer Bouchenot, after having moistened his thumb and counted the notes one by one.

"In that case," continued the former real-estate dealer, "put those blue rags in your pocket, my son; they are your dowry."

In saying this he cast a satisfied glance in the direction of the Brocards, as if to invite them to admire his squareness in business and imitate his example.

Numa and his wife had already understood the insidious signification of that style of "dealing aboveboard," and it seemed to me that they were rather annoyed by it. Madame Lucia still smiled vaguely, and her pale smile made to order resembled those whitish suns that foretell rain. The younger Brocard bit his lips and nervously drummed the back of his right hand with the fingers of his left. As for Paul he pocketed the bank notes, kissed his parents, and exhausted himself with expressions of gratitude.

After that *intermezzo* played so excellently by the Saint-Vannes silence was reestablished, and the lawyer, clearing his throat with a swallow of sugar and water, began once more his reading:

"The contribution of the bride consists in her clothes, linen, jewels, and household furnishings for her own personal use, the whole valued at five thousand francs. In consideration of the marriage——"

Up to that point Saint-Vanne senior had listened, thrown back in his armchair and complacently caressing his cheeks with the top of his cane. But at this place in the text he suddenly changed his position, bent forward his weasel-like head, leaned his chin on his hands, which were themselves resting on the ivory head of the cane, and darted keen looks at the lawyer, who continued:

"In consideration of the marriage M. Numa Brocard and Madame Brocard, *née* Des Encherins, declare that they jointly settle on Mlle. Flavia Brocard, their only daughter, as dowry, in advance of inheritance, a sum of fifty thousand francs consisting as follows: twenty thousand francs in cash, and thirty thousand francs in three per cent government bonds, of which the enumeration follows.'"

Lawyer Bouchenot raised his head. "If you will be so kind, M. Brocard, will you give me the details of the bonds, so that I may complete this part of my contract?"

Numa had grown as yellow as the legal documents in the lawyer's hands. He got up with a painful effort, turned toward the groom's family, and stammered out:

"I beg your pardon. I would like to modify that clause. Instead of a capital of thirty thousand francs in three per cents my wife and I pledge to pay to our daughter an annual life income of fifteen hundred francs, payable the 31st of December each year, which in fact amounts to the same thing."

Saint-Vanne senior was listening with an impassible air. As for Paul, his countenance underwent a change while Numa was formulating his amendment. His smile stiffened, his glance grew cold and hard, his shining round nose seemed to lengthen.

"Allow me," M. Saint-Vanne barked out suddenly. "Capital and income are not at all the same thing. The one is clear, certain, the other has a contingency about it that is always risky. We mustn't be afraid of expressing ourselves plainly in business matters. Well, what guarantee have we that the income will be faithfully paid?"

"I will give a mortgage on my factory," Numa answered.

"That's possible. But none the less this rather unexpected modification you surreptitiously introduce into the contract will change the position of the young people entirely. As for me I make my reservations, but as my son is the principal one concerned it is for him to state whether he accepts the new situation thus created."

"I think, father, as you do," replied young Paul. "I find that this change of plan is unfortunate."

Then he added in a coldly polite tone, speaking to Numa Brocard: "We have kept our promises, sir, I beg of you to keep yours."

"Come," said Saint-Vanne senior, with an air that was ostensibly conciliatory, "come, M. Brocard, be more reasonable. That isn't your last word?"

During this colloquy I was looking at Flavia. At first she hadn't appeared to understand anything about this business discussion. But when she noticed the coolness which took place in the manner of her betrothed, when she heard him address that insolent admonition to Numa, she grew pale and looked toward her mother with the glance of a wounded bird. This one already had had hard work to contain herself, her pride was so hurt. When she saw that Flavia was white and almost in a faint she could no longer control her nerves, and angrily rising she cried out:

"I do not intend that people shall haggle over my daughter in this way! Come, my child. That man is not worthy of you!"

At the same time she put her arm about Flavia, who was fairly choking with shame, and was about to lead her to the dining room.

"Ah! since you pitch it on that key, madame," Saint-Vanne senior answered with an ironical bow, "we are put at our ease and have nothing to do but go away. Your humble servant!"

The unhappy Numa, who saw the gulf widening, made one desperate effort: "M. Saint-Vanne, I beg of you be calm! Don't create a scandal!"

"If there is any scandal," answered the old real-estate dealer, "you will be responsible for it. Paul, give your mother your arm and let us go!"

The lawyer was knocking his writings about confusedly. My father had great difficulty in restraining Numa Brocard, who was beginning to inveigh against the two Saint-Vannes. As for me, crouched in my corner, astonished, with beating heart I was

beholding that stampede, and learning for the first time how a wretched question of money can modify opinions and instantaneously embitter temperaments. A few moments before these people were overflowing with sweetness for one another. Now they had nothing but rage in their glances and gall on their lips. The Saint-Vannes were angrily withdrawing, cursing their hosts, and the little lawyer, with his wrecked contract weighing down his heart, was following close after them. Madame Lucia had led Flavia into the room adjoining and Numa Brocard, becalmed in a chair, was swearing away like a heathen. My father was reasoning with him and questioning him in a low tone. In the courtyard you could hear the noise of a horse being hitched up, and the short, exasperated remarks of the Saint-Vannes. Then the snapping of a whip resounded, and the carriage rolled out into the street.

"Let them clear out! Pleasant journey!" grumbled Numa at first. But the rolling of the departing carriage almost immediately brought his thoughts back to the fatal results of the quarrel. He buried his head in his hands, groaning, "My poor Flavia! If you knew how tormented I am, M. du Condray!"

"James," said my father, "leave us alone to talk in quiet. Wait for me outside!"

A moment later I was entering the garden. The rain had just stopped. A timid ray of sunlight was stealing down between two heavy leaden clouds, and the thousands of drops trembling on the foliage of the trees were sparkling in its beam. The whole orchard seemed to be weeping over Flavia's mishap. So far as I was concerned I did not feel particularly cast down over the outcome. I was ashamed of my hard-heartedness, to be sure, and reproached myself for it, but it was impossible for me not to experience an inward relief in thinking that we had got rid of that trickster of a Saint-Vanne.

I now looked up at Flavia's window in the second story with a renewed hope. It had staid open, and one of the curtains stirred by the wind was hanging out. Sud-

denly I saw a hand draw in the curtain and shut the window. I concluded from this that the young girl had gone up to her room in order to weep there in quiet. I thought of the anguish that must overwhelm her, and my egotistical joy was changed into an affectionate compassion. I now desired to be near her and mingle my tears with hers. Overcome with restlessness I returned to the kitchen, which was still blazing with the preparations for the dinner ordered for six o'clock. An extra cook was bustling about in front of the ovens. One woman hired by the day was dressing chickens, another was hashing up seasoning. While I was prowling around the dresser Madame Lucia came down from the next story. She was prey to such keen emotion that she paid no attention to me. With a wandering gaze she surveyed the busy servants, the fowls ready for the spit, and then in a shrill voice she cried out: "Put out the fire at once and set all that in the pantry. The dinner is put off!"

She returned to the parlor, where Numa was still shut up with my father. I profited by this to slip into the stairway and go up to Flavia's room. I pushed the door open timidly. She didn't even hear me.

Still dressed in her best dress, seated before her worktable, her face hidden in her hands, she seemed turned to stone. She wasn't even crying. Her dry eyes had a strange fixedness about them. I stole to her feet and gently murmured, "Flavia!"

She looked at me, and pushing me away with a fierce gesture said in low tones, "Leave me! I want to be left alone!"

But I was not rebuffed.

"Flavia," I insisted, "do not be so distressed! I am left, I, and I will love you always!"

A sad smile moved convulsively over her lips and her hand rested on my shoulder.

"My poor boy," she sighed, "you don't know how wretched I am! I have no luck in anything. Do you remember the day we went to the fountain of Benoite-Vaux? I threw a pin into the spring and it swam. That signified that I should not succeed in anything."

While speaking in a broken voice she was wringing her hands. Her eyes fell on the ring Paul Saint-Vanne had given her the day of the *entrée*—a gold ring with a pearl.

"Ah!" she continued, "I would like to throw this ring into the water too. I'm sure it would sink straight down."

She tore the ring from her finger. She was about to do the same with my little silver ring, but I seized both her hands.

"No, no!" I cried, "keep my ring! I shall never forsake you, not I, and when I am rich I will give you another, much handsomer than his."

The betrothal ring had rolled onto the table, and the white pearl was showing iris hues under a pale ray of sunlight coming in through the window. Flavia looked at it a moment longer, then with an angry gesture sent it flying to the floor. Her eyes filled with tears and she broke out into sobs. Tears are contagious. Mine did not delay to flow. Tenderly I put my head on her knees and we wept together for a long time in the quiet room.

IX.

NEVERTHELESS, in the midst of the emotions of that private tragedy, in the midst of these scenes of love and grief, the days flowed by like a muddy stream through the gratings of a reservoir. Chânois wood was taking on its autumn tints, and September, drawing to its close, was summoning my father back to his bench and me to my school. Scolastique was already busy with packing supplies and our departure had been fixed for the first Monday in October.

I was to say farewell to the Brocards on Sunday. But before parting from Flavia for a whole winter I wished to give her a symbolical witness of my affection by carrying to her the last forest flowers. Very early in the morning, then, I went off through the woods of Benoite-Vaux in quest of the rare autumnal plants that were still blooming in them. I gathered those lilac scabrous flowers that are called "widow flowers," those mauve "watchers" that

abound in our meadows, announcing the cold days and long evenings. I added some pale meadowsweets and violet asters to them. Then having exhausted October's scanty flora I enlarged my sheaf with tufts of clematis, the reddening tops of oak shoots, spindlewood branches, privets, and blackthorns with red or black berries. My bouquet, thus made up, with its somber shades, verging from pale lilac to violet blue, and its tangled branches had a melancholy, depressed, and mourning air about it in perfect harmony with the season and the state of our minds.

On entering the factory I came upon my friend on the steps, just returning from low mass. Since the breaking of her engagement she had not dared to risk herself at high mass. She led me to her room, put her prayer-book down, took off her hat, and turning toward me said, faintly smiling:

"Well, well! you must have been running about the woods since cock-crow to get together all those!"

She had grown a little pale, but her face had a calmness about it that deceived me. Children, accustomed as they are to noisy manifestations of their joy or sorrow, have no idea of grief hidden under a mask of indifference. I thought her already half consoled, and answered:

"I am going away to-morrow morning and wished to bring you, for my last visit, a bouquet of my own way of thinking. It is not so handsome as those you used to get from Sonilly, but it will last longer."

A cloud passed over Flavia's eyes; she bit her lips and broke in severely:

"Keep still! Never speak to me about that!"

Her bosom heaved as though she were stifling a sob. She silently took up my bunch of flowers, looked at it absent-mindedly, and added:

"Thanks! That is a genuine autumn bouquet. It smells of fall. We will put it in water."

The bunch was so large that it couldn't get into a vase, and we were obliged to put it in the water-pitcher, a fact that mortified me very much, for I found that prosaic

lodging hardly worthy of my bouquet. Flavia had seated herself near the window. Her idle hands were mechanically toying with the prayer-book on her worktable, and without uttering a word we were both listening to the bells that were ringing the second summons to high mass. Their droning voices recalled that fine Palm Sunday to me when I had been so happy following the service in Flavia's book. I know not what memories or what regrets these same bells awoke in her heart, but she remained thoughtful, and her gaze seemed to wander a hundred leagues away. Suddenly she shook her head, and with an affected solicitude spoke to me once more :

"So you are going back to school again to-morrow? I hope you will work hard, James?"

"Oh, yes, Flavia, I am going to hurry up to learn all that is necessary in order to become a man. I wish I were six or seven years older!"

"Why are you in such a hurry, I wonder?"

Her question shocked me. "Why? Why, so as to marry you, Flavia!"

"Oh," she answered with a sarcastic smile, "by that time I shall be an old maid."

"You will always be young and always beautiful!" I passionately cried.

"No, I shall be good for nothing but to enter a convent, if indeed they will still be willing to let me in."

Was it the flowers of my autumn bouquet that poured out upon us a languorous influence with their melancholy odors? An atmosphere of sadness and depression settled down upon us up to the very end of that farewell call. Vainly did I cast about for new subjects of conversation. Flavia would return nothing but vague replies. Our talk dragged itself out wretchedly. Finally I got up, kissed my silent friend, then went to take leave of her parents. The next morning my father, Scolastique, and myself set out for Villotte.

I took up my classical studies again with ardor. I had entered the third form, and wished to keep my word of working hard in order to quickly attain my bachelor's degree and become a man. In the meantime

I was translating Virgil's *Georgics* and my teacher, M. Dordelu, declared that he was very well satisfied with my progress.

October quickly passed. Then November came with its brilliant frosty mornings, its clear cold nights, when the troops of marriageable girls would sing Saint Catherine's praises from door to door. I was tranquilly enjoying the delights of winter, slides in the street gutters, luncheons at the chestnut vender's, the celebrations that precede the holiday season. One single black spot spoiled all this: we were without news from the Brocards and Flavia. Toward Saint Nicholas' Day (December 10), the snow fell thick and fast, lining roof and trees with its fleecy ermine. Traveling soon became difficult, and we passed our evenings shut up within the house, near the hearth-fire.

One evening some days before Christmas my father and I had gone into the study after supper. The stove was roaring. On one side of the table my father was reading his newspaper, in his gray flannel dressing-gown. I, on the other side, my nose in my Virgil or my dictionary, was translating the episode of the shepherd Aristæus. I had reached the passage where Orpheus was lamenting Eurydice "like to a nightingale mourning over the loss of her young that a cruel husband-man has borne away from the nest." While translating I was comparing my fate to that of the Greek singer. Had I not lost her whom I loved? Was I not as far from her as Orpheus was from Eurydice? It seemed to me that the two feet of snow which stretched away on every side separated me forever from Flavia. I was thinking of the sorrows of my dear one; I could see her shut up in her room with its frost-flowered windows, and I was exclaiming mentally with the poet, "*Ah! miseram Eurydicem!*" Suddenly there was a violent ringing at the street door.

"Who the deuce can be coming here in such weather?" muttered my father.

We could hear in the vestibule the noise of heavy feet and astonished exclamations. Then Scolastique opened the door of the room, pushing in front of her an indistinct figure of a human being that immediately

started out with many profound excuses. The visitor was lost in a woolen cloak that had two capes, like those of the shepherds in our country. His cap of rabbit skin, with its ear-muffs pulled down and meeting under the chin, hardly allowed a glimpse of a reddened nose and two lips chapped by the cold.

"Go ahead, Coco!" cried Scolastique.

In fact it was Coco, our farmhand, benumbed by the cold outside and at the same time suffocated by the hot air of the study.

"What! is that you, Coco?" asked my father.

"I myself in person," the peasant answered, slowly divesting himself of his cap and cloak. "Good evening to you M. du Condray and good evening to the company! I reach you in very vile weather. It took me more than seven hours to come in my wagon from Ériseul to Villotte. I had two quintals of wheat to deliver at Marbot's mill, and I had said to myself, 'It won't do, you must shake yourself!' And besides we had killed some pigs for Christmas and I thought to myself, 'I'm going to profit by the occasion to carry some pig's meat to M. du Condray.' And here I am!"

"Thank you for your kindness, Coco," my father answered. "But you must be hungry. Scolastique will get you some supper. In the meantime warm yourself and tell us about your family."

"You are very good. Everybody at our house is in good condition. Our Melia works like a horse, as usual."

"And at Numa Brocard's?"

"Alas," sighed Coco, "things at the factory are not going on well at all!"

While expressing himself in his Verdun dialect Coco lowered his voice. His under lip stuck out with an air of mystery about it and wrinkles gathered around his little shrewd eyes, while his old hands, cracked and hardened with tilling the ground, stretched their benumbed fingers toward the porcelain stove.

At hearing him speak of the factory I had raised my head to listen.

"You see, M. du Condray," he continued, "Mlle. Flavia's engagement that was

broken turned out to be a very bad affair. People wanted to know the why and wherefore of the separation, the Saint-Vannes tattled, and the rumor went abroad that M. Brocard had not been able to do as he had agreed to. Then the creditors of the factory came out of their holes, as many in number as snails after a rain. The sheriffs took a hand in it, notes went to protest, and there is talk of a voluntary bankruptcy. Poor M. Brocard is going daft over it. When he knew I was going to Villotte he came to our house at nightfall and gave me a note for you."

Whereupon Coco drew a crumpled letter from the depths of his jacket pocket. My father took it, tore open the envelope, and read it, standing near the lamp. With a heart bowed down by these evil tidings I curiously fixed my eyes on my father's face, in order to divine by it the contents of the letter. But the habit of his judicial functions had given to my father a mask of impassibility. He did not move an eyelid, and when he had finished reading calmly put the letter down under his eye-glasses. At that instant Scolastique came and announced that Coco's supper was ready, and he followed her into the kitchen.

When we were alone my father paced the room two or three times meditatively, rubbing his nose between his thumb and forefinger. Then he addressed me abruptly:

"Ha! James, it is Sunday to-morrow, and Tuesday will be Christmas. Didn't you say you had a vacation till Wednesday?"

"Yes, sir."

"Do you think yourself strong enough to brave the snow and go with me to Ériseul? We will leave to-morrow in Coco's wagon."

I accepted enthusiastically, and the next day, well wrapped in our cloaks, with a bottle of hot water under our feet and a soft wool blanket over our knees, we were rolling along the Verdun road.

It had frozen hard during the night and the snow creaked under our wheels. Before us the plain stretched out as far as we could see, dazzling, slightly tinted by the morning sun. All was white—woods, fields, villages. The sound of the Sabbath bells, deadened

by the layers of snow on them, had in it something even more restful than usual. The plain was calm, deserted. Flights of crows alone were wheeling in the milky sky. This silence of the country affected us. We exchanged but few words and remained absorbed in our reflections. I was thinking of Numa's discomfiture and the sad Christmas that was coming to poor Flavia. I was grateful to my father for his happy thought of taking me to Ériseul, and I promised myself I would lavish the most consoling caresses on my friend. Coco's horse wasn't a good roadster. We were obliged to stop at Rumont to lunch and let him rest, so that it was night before we reached our journey's end. As nothing had been got ready at Chèvre-Chêne to receive us we slept at our farmhand's house, who lodged us as well as he could, and on Monday morning my father and I started out for the factory.

The Numa Brocards were about finishing their morning cups of coffee in the dining room, where a feeble fire was burning. We were not expected, and our arrival was greeted by an outburst of tender surprise. Numa Brocard, whom I found singularly broken, threw himself into my father's arms. Madame Lucia, always haunted by her mania for decorum and her vain preoccupation of remaining a *Des Encherins* to the bitter end, excused herself fulsomely for showing herself in her wrapper. As to Flavia she seemed to me to be deeply touched by this sign of sympathy, and I saw her blue eyes fill with tears. When the first welcome was over my father went and shut himself up with Numa in his office in order to talk with him more unrestrainedly. As it had been agreed upon that we should take our dinner and supper at the factory Madame Brocard claimed Flavia's assistance in making the necessary culinary preparations, and I was given leave of absence up to noon. I should have preferred to pass my forenoon alone with my friend, but I understood I would bother mother and daughter and I decided to go and prow around out of doors.

I had not taken ten steps along the water-course—which was hardly coursing on that

morning, since it was imprisoned under a transparent layer of ice—when I received a snowball in the back. Turning suddenly around I saw Tintin Brocard coming out of his house. His squirrel-like head was buried in a fur cap, and he was sticking his wet hands into his mittens made of rabbit's skin.

"Hello, Jim!" cried he to me. "Are you coming with me to the Fosse-des-Dames? The whole meadow is frozen over and we will have some fine sliding."

I accepted all the more willingly because I knew he was a gossip and I hoped to learn from him what Nicholas Brocard's attitude now was toward his unfortunate brother. And indeed my hope was not in vain.

"You have come to pass the holidays at Ériseul," he began, "and you are going to celebrate Christmas with your sweetheart Flavia, eh? Every one to his taste. My opinion is that you won't be too gay at Numa's house. They are not in the way of laughing just now! People say that they will be attached this week. If you had a good scent you would rather come and join in the spread at our house. We will go in a crowd to midnight mass, and after that we will eat turkey stuffed with chestnuts."

"Thanks," I answered, straightening up. "I will remain with my friends, the Brocards. If they are in trouble that's no reason why one should turn his back on them. Your father himself should be less hard toward his brother now."

"Papa says that you can't pass your time in fishing out people who throw themselves into the water wilfully."

"Yes, he prefers to let them drown. It is cheaper!"

I was angry with Tintin's parents, and I had a good mind to leave him on the spot. But the sight of the Fosse-des-Dames meadows, all swarming with urchins sliding on the ice, put a damper on my resentment. During the November rains the water had overflowed, and freezing weather having suddenly come the meadow had been turned into a vast field of ice smooth as a mirror. All the children of the village were playing on it, some with sleds, others sliding, squat

down on their wooden shoes. A few big boys were skating. You could see them spin along, bent forward, and whirl round and round on the frozen surface. My rancor did not hold out against such a pleasing temptation. I rushed along after Tintin over a slide that extended to the very end of the meadow. The joy of flying like an arrow over the ice dissipated my sorrow for the moment, and in that amusement which you can hardly resist when you are fourteen years old I forgot the passing of the hours. The midday angelus surprised us, intoxicated with motion.

"Cracky!" cried Tintin, "I must go. We have company at home. Paul Saint-Vanne takes dinner with us."

"Paul Saint-Vanne!" I stammered chok-

ing. "You have asked him to dinner in spite of the insult he offered to your uncle Numa?"

"Does that surprise you? Because he wouldn't marry Flavia? Well, supposing he wouldn't. That's no reason why we should put him out of our house."

"By no means! On the contrary, he will perhaps marry your Celenia."

"Why not?" answered Tintin jeeringly. "Celenia is as good as Flavia, and in taking her M. Paul would not at least run the risk of marrying a penniless wife."

"Get out!" I shouted in a rage. "I am disgusted with your Saint-Vanne, and with you too!"

This time I left him for good, and went back to Numa Brocard's greatly enraged.

(To be concluded.)

THE GRAPE INDUSTRY.

BY ROBERT LEW SEYMOUR.

IN all the history of grape culture its highest perfection is said to obtain in the Persian Empire. The earliest mention we find is in its cultivation by the Romans, while biblical history tells us of the great interest Noah took in planting and caring for a vineyard. In early times vine culture flourished in China, but with the advance of Mohammedanism it was prohibited by law. The product of the grape was everywhere recognized as a part of Christianity; this was caused largely by the indorsement it received from missionaries everywhere.

Vine culture was first attempted in New England and later in Florida in about 1525, but met with little or no success. An attempt on a large scale was then made in Virginia. Foreigners skilled in the culture and care of grapes were brought to make success certain, but nothing but failure was the result. In 1680 William Penn made an unsuccessful attempt to establish a vineyard near Philadelphia.

The first real success of any importance was in 1835, when one Major Adlum, of

Washington, D. C., obtained most excellent results in the cultivation of the now celebrated Catawba. Nicholas Longworth of Cincinnati was an enthusiast on the subject and through his industry from 1858 to 1867 some 2,000 acres were planted, but the work was done in a hasty manner and failure set in at many points, and it was demonstrated that the time and conditions for the general culture of the grape had not arrived.

The chief difficulty which the growers of this period seemed to encounter was that the quality of grapes grown would not produce a wine of good enough quality to obtain for it a ready sale. The cultivation therefore gravitated from one locality to another until at the present time the best grapes—those from which the best by-products come, and those which receive the careful attention of the grower—come from what is known as the northern grape belt of the United States. This belt lies close to the Great Lakes and extends in what would properly be called a shore line from Lake Michigan to Lake Erie. The growers ex-

perience abundant success in this region. The soil is unusually adapted, and from the fact that no early frosts are encountered to blight the fruit we find the shores of the lakes in this belt dotted with immense vineyards from one end to the other, some large and some small, all producing a quality of grape unexcelled in any part of the country.

The cultivation of the vine is indeed of the utmost importance, requiring as it does a high and prolonged summer temperature to produce a hardy, thrifty crop.

Diseases peculiar to the grape are numerous, affecting the fruit, the stem, and the leaves. The character of these is due more or less to conditions under which culture is attempted, such as improper drainage, or unusual cold or wet weather. Among those most common we find "blight," "dropsy," "cancer," and since 1845 there have been several epidemics of what is known as "mildew." The principal destruction caused by this particular disease was in 1852, when it attacked the vineyards on the island of Madeira, and such havoc did it bring about that we may say that since then the wine trade of Madeira has been practically extinct. At this same time the disease ravaged the vineyards of France and Germany to a fearful extent.

The disease itself is the development of a fungus parasite covering the leaves as well as the grapes with a network of white beaded fibers. Growth is stopped and decay follows. The most common remedy is to dust the vines with flowers of sulphur. Various other diseases exhibit themselves from time to time, some of which require and receive prompt and energetic treatment.

The Michigan and Ohio grapes are first on the market and are distributed chiefly in the South and West. Those coming from the Chautauqua and Brocton districts are given a little more time to ripen, and when they come on the market they are as near perfect in quality and flavor as is possible to obtain. In and about Westfield, Ripley, Brocton, and Dunkirk immense vineyards stretch far and away over the gradual slope of the hills toward the shores of Lake Erie—some 25,000 acres in all.

The long straight rows, climbing the four-foot trellises until they cover them completely with green foliage, and running down it would seem almost into the waters of Lake Erie, present a picture that any artist might well try to copy.

The vines root easily. This is done usually by cuttings, taking two to three buds each from the previous year's stocks. Seedlings are grown in order that new varieties may be brought out. The soil best adapted is a rich, sandy loam, carrying with it mineral plant-food, such as potash. This last is especially desirable as it strengthens the vine life against disease and insects.

The management of the vineyard is an interesting study and one which to be successful requires technical knowledge. In the large vineyards, as a rule, the owner himself gives personal supervision to every detail; sometimes a manager or overseer performs these duties. One of the largest growers in this section tells me that the most successful grower is the foreigner who with his family of eight or ten comes and leases or buys twenty-five or fifty acres of land, each member of the family having his or her part in the work to perform from spring until picking time, while the winter is devoted to the making of the baskets. Thus no outside expenditure is incurred and when the grapes are sold the proceeds return to the family as the profit on the individual labor of each member—quite in contrast with the large owner who is compelled to hire help to do each little thing, in addition to buying his baskets.

The Concord grape is the only variety of any consequence raised in this region, and some idea of the magnitude of the business carried on may be had when it is known that the shipments this year from Chautauqua County alone will amount to 3,500 car loads, 3,000 baskets of ten pounds each in each car. These are taken from the grower by some one of the numerous growers' associations, whose business it is to find a market. Strange as it may seem it is nevertheless true that three fourths of them go to points west of Chicago, while the other one fourth travels eastward.

The making of baskets is an important item. Many factories are employed. The price ranges from two to two and a half cents per basket; thus the grower who would find his business in any way profitable must in addition to the cost of the basket realize at least one cent per pound for his grapes, while to-day it is a common thing to find a ten-pound basket on the retail market slow sale at ten cents. Thus we find that the utmost care must be taken in the management of a vineyard to make it profitable.

One of the largest industries connected with the growing of grapes is that of wine-making. Several large wine cellars are located in the Chautauqua grape belt, the most notable of which is at Brocton. Here large quantities of grapes are annually grown and used for this purpose. In addition to unfermented wine two principal kinds of light fermented wine are made, namely, Port and Catawba.

In making fermented wine the pure grape juice is subjected to radical changes. The technical name of the juice is "must." It consists of water holding in solution grape sugar, gum dextrine, fat, wax, albumen, and gluten, also tartaric acid and several like earth products. As soon as the "must" passes from the wine-press fermentation begins. This usually takes from three to four days. Before quite finished a general stirring-up process takes place to re-excite

the great liquid mass. At the end of three weeks it gradually settles and clears and sediment forms at the bottom. It is then removed to another place and what is called slow fermentation begins. The sugar is gradually converted into alcohol and carbon dioxide. This is done several times in order to get rid of the sediment, until finally it is transferred to casks or barrels.

The Brocton cellars contain much wine which has "age"; this is considered the best and that which obtains the most ready sale. It is mostly stored in wood, which permits the water to evaporate and the other constituent parts to materially increase. The evaporation of the water and the adding of more wine increases very largely the quantity of tartaric acid.

The wine from this district retails at from forty cents to sixty cents per quart.

From the middle to the last of September is grape-picking time. Young girls mostly are employed, hundreds of them coming from miles around to engage in the work. The evenings are passed by all joining in social amusements, until the onlooker wonders if he is not in attendance upon a mammoth prolonged old-fashioned husking bee. However, employment is given to many, the grapes have all been gathered, all have had a good time, and the pickers depart for home with sufficient to buy a new Sunday dress and to live in hopeful anticipation of the next year's grape-picking time.

THE RIVER.

BY JANET REMINGTON.

WHEN the river reaches the sea, all's well;
It matters little then
That its course is narrow, with barren banks
That of no beauties tell.

It reaches the sea, and the end is vast—
Full life forevermore;
Exulting it joins in the life of the sea,
And this is the song it sings to thee:
"When I reach the sea, all's well at last,
For the end crowns all—and the end is vast."



From the painting by Gabriel Max

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MADONNA AND CHILD.



From the painting by Raphael.

The Pitti Gallery, Florence.

THE MADONNA DELLA SEDIA.



From the painting by Hugo Vogel

MADONNA AND CHILD.



From the painting by Perugino.

The Louvre, Paris.

MADONNA AND CHILD WITH SAINTS.



From the painting by Carl Müller.

THE MADONNA OF THE GROTO.



From the painting by Giulio Romano.

The Dresden Gallery.

HEAD OF MADONNA.



From the painting by C. Froschl.

MADONNA AND CHILD.



From the painting by Raphael

The Dresden Gallery.

THE MADONNA DI SAN SISTO.

IRWIN RUSSELL, THE SOUTHERN HUMORIST

BY W. M. BASKERVILL, A.M., PH.D. (LEIPSIK).

PROFESSOR OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE IN VANDERBILT UNIVERSITY.

A YOUNG Marylander, a stripling just from college, was dreaming dreams from which he was awakened by the guns of Sumter. One sleepless night in April, 1861, he wrote the poem "My Maryland," which may not inaptly be called the first note of the new southern literature—"new in strength, new in depth, new in the largest elements of beauty and truth." He that had ears to hear might have heard in the booming of those guns not only the signal for a gigantic contest but also the proclamation of the passing away of the old order and along with it the wax-flowery, amateurish, and sentimental race of southern writers.

But first should come the terrible experiences of a mighty conflict, in which the soul of the people was to be brought out, through struggles, passions, partings, heroism, love, death—all effective in the production of genuine feeling and the development of real character. While the battles were being fought in the homes of the southerners their poets sent forth, now a stirring martial lyric, now a humorous song or poem recounting the trials and hardships of camp, hospital, and prison life, these becoming ever more and more intermingled with dirges—for Jackson, for Albert Sidney Johnston, for Stuart, for Ashby, and finally for the "Conquered Banner." But in all of these there was no trace of artificiality, no sign of mawkish sentimentality. They were surcharged with deep, genuine, sincere feeling; they were instinct with life. In this respect the war poetry laid the foundation for the new literature.

Accompanying the return to reality was a social earthquake, which laid bare the rich literary deposits in which the South abounded. As one of the best of the new school has said, "Never in the history of

this country has there been a generation of writers who came into such an inheritance of material as has fallen to these younger writers of the South." Under the new order southern life and manners were for the first time open to a full and free report and criticism.

It is noticeable that in the racy, humorous writings of Longstreet, Thompson, Meek, and others—sketches which contained the elements of real life—the negro is conspicuous for his absence. At that time there was enough and to spare written about him by way of defense, vindication, or apology, but to use him as art material seemed to be far from the thoughts of southern writers. After the war, however, the one subject which hitherto could have been treated with least freedom became the most prolific theme of the new writers.

The literature of the New South had for its cardinal principles good will and sympathy. Its aims were to cement bonds of good fellowship between the sections, to depict the negro according to his real character, and to exhibit to the world the true relations which existed between master and slave.

Irwin Russell was among the first—if not the very first—of southern writers to appreciate the literary possibilities of the negro character and of the unique relations existing between the two races before the war, and was among the first to develop them, says Joel Chandler Harris.

He was born in Port Gibson, Miss., June 3, 1853—the same year in which the author of "Marse Chan" first saw the light in Virginia. His father, Dr. William McNab Russell, had left his native state of Ohio in early manhood and moved to Mississippi to engage in the practice of medicine, becoming in a short time very success-

ful. But in 1853 he transferred his family and home to St. Louis, Mo., where he resided until the breaking out of the Civil War. Then he returned to Port Gibson, to cast in his lot with the Confederacy; for like almost every northerner that had made his home in the South he was an ardent sympathizer with this section.

While in St. Louis Irwin had doubtless been put to school, for he was a remarkably precocious boy. At any rate, after the war he was sent back to this city to be placed in the St. Louis University, which was under the charge of the Jesuit fathers, and from which he was graduated in 1869 with high credit. At college he was studious and gave evidence of real ability, his talents being more particularly shown in the line of higher mathematics.

After graduation he returned to Mississippi, read law, and by a special act of the legislature he was admitted to the bar at the age of nineteen. He practiced for a while and became specially proficient in conveyancing, which is said to require very exact technical knowledge. But one of his peculiar tastes and disposition could hardly be expected to confine himself to the daily routine and drudgery of a law office. He was inclined to diversions; one, for example, was the printer's trade, which he learned so thoroughly as to become a dainty compositor, and in time he grew to be critically fond of old prints and black-letter volumes—a real connoisseur, recognizing at a glance the various types used in book-making. He delighted to pick up odd volumes of the old dramatists and took special pride in possessing one of the oldest copies of Wycherley in existence. He was also given to roving, and like Robert Louis Stevenson he might have been known and pointed out for the pattern of an idler.

Abundant fields for observation and for the study of character were offered to his inner eye, although the outer ones were shut in by blindness and near-sightedness. (He had when a child lost the sight of one eye by the point of a penknife and was near-sighted in the other.) The grotesque appealed to him most strongly, and as

he had acquired facility in drawing he made humorous and fantastic sketches on scraps of paper, old envelopes, or whatever was at hand, as material for future use. His skill in caricature reminded his friends not a little of Thackeray. Love of nature was in him a passion, and a splendid sunset, a gorgeous southern forest, or other natural scenes he keenly enjoyed and beautifully described. In him was found the exquisite delicacy of organism so frequently seen in modern poets, which vibrated to every appeal.

At some time or other Irwin Russell must have had a rarely sympathetic companion or guide in literary study. Was it one of the Jesuit fathers, or his own father, "who was idolized by the son"? We know not. But his extreme nicety in the use of language, his quick and retentive ear for dialect, his ability to imitate almost perfectly the poets, and his deep reading in literature for one of his age were all remarkable and gave evidence of careful training and study. He was another example of that rare union of bright mind with frail body through which the keenest appreciation and the most exquisite sensibility are developed.

At times, too, he was capable of painstaking application and ardent devotion to study. He made a close study of Chaucer and "Percy's Reliques," and the old English dramatists were his constant companions—the sources of never-failing enjoyment. He caught the tones of Herrick's or Thackeray's ballads with equal ease, greatly admired Byron, and was powerfully influenced by Shelley. In his correspondence there was here an echo of Carlyle, there of Thackeray or some other master. Though his reading was confined mainly to English literature he knew Molière's dramas, even wishing to translate "Tartuffe" and "Le Misanthrope," and took the keenest delight in Rabelais, whose wit, sarcasm, and satiric exaggeration he longed to apply to the follies and deformities of more modern life. "He literally, as he somewhere says, had the best parts of Rabelais by heart."

But his chief favorite was Burns, whose influences are everywhere visible. "Christ-

mas Night in the Quarters" reminds us strongly now of "The Jolly Beggars," now of "Tam O'Shanter." His imitation of Burns' "Epistles" is so perfect that we could easily believe that the Scottish bard wrote the following stanzas:

The warld, they say, is gettin' auld;
Yet in her bosom, I've been tauld,
A burnin', youthful heart's installed—
I dinna ken—

But sure her face seems freezin' cauld
To some puir men.

In summer, though the sun may shine,
Aye still the winter's cauld is mine—
But what o' that? The manly pine
Endures the storm!

Ae spark o' poesy divine
Will keep me warm.

In almost boyish *abandon* he says, "Burns is my idol. He seems to me the greatest man that ever God created—beside whom all other poets are utterly insignificant. In fact my feelings in this regard are precisely equivalent to those of the old Scotchman mentioned in 'Library Notes,' who was consoled in the hour of death by the thought that he should see Burns."

For the writing of negro dialect and the delineation of negro character Irwin Russell had the gift of genius and all the advantages of opportunity. As he himself said, "I have lived long among the negroes (as also long enough away from them to appreciate their peculiarities); understand their character, disposition, language, customs, and habits; have studied them, have them continually before me." But with him dialect was a second consideration. He used it as did Shakespeare in "King Lear," as did Fielding in "Joseph Andrews," as did Scott, Thackeray, George Eliot, and all the great masters—as the only natural medium for the presentation of certain kinds of character. In another garb they would be masquerading. As the author of "Uncle Remus" has aptly said, "The dialect is not always the best—it is often carelessly written—but the negro is there, the old-fashioned, unadulterated negro, who is still dear to the southern heart. I do not know where could be found to-day a happier or a more perfect representation of negro character."

Not the least important of the shaping influences which contributed to this result is sympathetically suggested in "Befo' de War," by "One Mourner," "Wha's sorry Marse Irwin's dead":

He couldn' 'a' talked so nachal
'Bout niggers in sorrow an' joy,
Widouten he had a black mammy
To sing to him 'long ez a boy.

But his chief title to our consideration is originality. As Mr. Page has said, "He laid bare a lead in which others have since discovered further treasures." Like many another original discovery this was made in a very simple, natural way. To a friend who asked him how he came to write in negro dialect he answered:

"It was almost an inspiration. . . . You know I am something of a banjoist. Well, one evening I was sitting in our back yard in old Mississippi, 'twanging' on the banjo, when I heard the missis—our colored domestic, an old darky of the Aunt Dinah pattern, singing one of the outlandish camp-meeting hymns of which the race is so fond. She was an extremely 'ligious character and, although seized with the impulse to do so I hesitated to take up the tune and finish it. I did so, however, and in the dialect I have adopted, and which I then thought and still think is in strict conformity to their use of it, I proceeded, as one inspired, to compose verse after verse of the most absurd, extravagant and, to her, irreverent rhyme ever before invented, all the while accompanying it on the banjo, and imitating the fashion of the plantation negro. The old missis was so exasperated and indignant that she predicted all sorts of dire calamities. Meantime my enjoyment of it was prodigious. I was then about sixteen, and as I had soon after a like inclination to versify, was myself pleased with the performance, and it was accepted by the publisher, I have continued to work the vein indefinitely. There is plenty in it such as it is."

Russell's appreciation of the darky was wonderful. The negro's humor and his wisdom were a constant marvel to him. What would strike an ordinary observer as merely

ludicrous glistened by the reflected light of his mind like a proverb. The darky's insight into human nature and circumstances he believed to be more than instinct; such infallible results could only come from deduction. When asked whether there was any real poetry in the negro character he replied, "Many think the vein a limited one, but I tell you it is inexhaustible."

The "Poems" contain for the most part a picture of the negro himself. But only once is he in a reminiscential vein, when we catch a glimpse of the old-time prosperous planter, "Mahsr John," who "shorely wuz de greates' man de country ebber growed":

I only has to shet my eyes, an' den it seems to me
I sees him right afore me now, jes like he use' to be,
A-settin' on de gal'ry, lookin' awful big an' wise,
Wid little niggers fannin' him to keep away de flies.
He allus wore de berry bes' ob planters' linen suits,
An' kep' a nigger busy jes a-blackin' ob his boots;
De buckles on his galluses was made of solid gol,
An' di'mon's!—dey wuz in his shut as thick as it
would hol'.

There is a slight touch of pathos in

He had to pay his debts, an' so his lan' is mos'tly
gone,
An' I declar' I's sorry fur my pore ol' Mahsr
John;

but it does not prevent him from hiding "rocks" in the bale of cotton which in another poem he tries to sell "Mahsr Johnny."

In general the poems rather give true presentments of the negro's queer superstitions and still queerer ignorances, his fondness for a story, especially an animal tale and a ghost story, his habit of talking to himself or the animal he is plowing with or driving, his gift in prayer and shrewd preachments, his love of music, especially on the fiddle and the banjo, and the happy abandonment of his revels, his irresponsible life, his slippery shifts, his injured innocence when discovered—over all of which are thrown the mantle of charity and the mellowing rays of humor and wisdom. Occasionally we chance upon a dainty bit of poetry, as in the verse,

An' folks don't 'spise de vi'let-flower bekase it ain't
de rose.

But oftener it is practical, homespun wit in which "Christmas Night in the Quarters,"

the best delineation of some phases of negro life yet written, specially abounds. Now it is old Jim talking to a slow ox—

Mus' be you think I's dead,
An' dis de huss you's draggin'—
You's mos' too lazy to draw yo' bref,
Let 'lone drawin' de waggin.

Then Brudder Brown with native simplicity proceeds "to beg a blessin' on dis dance":

O Mahs! let dis gath'rin' fin' a blessin' in yo' sight!
Don't jedge us hard fur what we does—you know
it's Christmus night.

You bless us, please, sah, eben ef we's doin' wrong
to-night;

Kase den we'll need de blessin' more'n ef we's doin'
right.

The dance begins—and a more natural scene than the fiddler "callin' de figgers" was never penned—in which "Georgy Sam" carries off the palm:

De nigger mus' be, for a fac',
Own cousin to a jumpin' jack!

"An' tell you what, de *supper* wuz a '*tic-lar* sarcumstance"—the poet himself not even attempting to describe this scene. But the fun reaches its height when the banjo is called for and the story of its origin is told, how Ham invented it "fur to amuse he-se'f" in the ark. Did Burns ever sing a more rollicking strain than this?

He strung her, tuned her, struck a jig—'twas "Neb-ber min' de wedder"—

She soun' like forty-lebben bands a-playin' all to-gether;

Some went to pattin', some to dancin'; Noah
called the figgers,

An' Ham he sot an' knocked de tune, de happiest
ob niggers!

So wears the night, and wears so fast,
All wonder when they find it past,
And hear the signal sound to go
From what few cocks are left to crow.

The picture of the freedman is strikingly characteristic and true to life. The false sample of cotton and the hidden stones in the bale being detected, he is, as usual, ready enough with an excuse:

. . . Mahsr Johnny, dis is fine,
I's gone an' hauled my brudder's cotton in, instead
ob mine.

He is a great flatterer, and has a "slick" tongue, either in begging a piece of tobacco

or in wheedling "young marster" out of a dollar for a pup not "wuf de powder it'd take to blow him up." His propensity for chickens is notorious;

An' ef a man cain't borry what's layin' out ob nights, I'd like you fur to tell me what's the good of *swivel rights*?

He thinks you "turn state's ebbidence" with a crank, and "dem folks in de Norf is de beatin'est lot!" in spite of their blue coats and brass buttons, which he "seed de time 'at Grant's army come froo." "Dey's ign'ant as ign'ant kin be," he says—

Dey w'udn't know gumbo ef put in dey mouf—
Why don't dey all sell out an' come to de Souf?

The negro's insight, observation, and sententiousness are revealed through many homely but inimitable aphorisms:

But ef you quits a-workin' ebery time the sun is hot,
De sheriff's goin' to lebbly upon ebery t'ing you's got.

I nebber breaks a colt afore he's old enough to trabel;

I nebber digs my taters tell dey's plenty big to grabble.

I don't keer how my apple looks, but on'y how it tas'es.

De man what keeps pullin' de grape-vine shakes down a few bunches at leas'.

A violeen is like an 'ooman, mighty hard to guide.

Dere's allus somefin' 'bout it out ob kelter, more or less,

An' 'taint de fancies' lookin' ones dat allus does de bes'.

You nebber heerd a braggin fiddler play a decent jig.

There is a touch of sentiment in the father's precepts to his son about to seek his fortune as waiter upon the "Robbut E. Lee."

It's hard on your mudder, your' leabin—I don't know whatebber she'll do;

An' shorely your fadder'll miss you—I'll allus be thinkin' ob you.

But he quickly veils it under true humor and homely wisdom—

Don't you nebber come back, sah, widout you has money an' clo'es.

I's kep' you as long as I's gwine to, and now you an me we is done—

An' calves is too skace in dis country to kill for a prodigal son.

All these pictures are perfectly truthful, but as the lawyers say, they are not the whole truth. Perhaps Russell died too young to sound the depths of the negro's emotional nature. He caught no tones like those echoing in Harris' "Bless God, he died free!" or James Whitcomb Riley's wail of the old mother over her dead "Gladness," her only free-born child. "But, within his limits, he whose happy genius and sad fate create a tenderness at the very mention of his name has never been surpassed."

The last two years of Russell's life present the strange contrasts so often met with in poetical temperaments when the earth-born and the celestial have not been fused into a perfect union. Acts of nobility and self-sacrifice were quickly followed by thoughtless follies which laid him low. During the whole of the yellow fever epidemic in 1878 he remained in Port Gibson and served as a devoted nurse, though he never escaped from the scenes through which he passed. The ghastly picture haunted his imagination. He lost many dear friends, "including the one on whom his affections were fixed and his happiness depended."

To crown his misfortune his father, whom he idolized and "who had exhausted himself in philanthropic efforts to arrest the scourge," suddenly died. Thus thrown entirely upon himself he endeavored to take up life in a manly, courageous way, and he set out with many valuable pieces in his literary knapsack for New York City, with the purpose of devoting his life to letters. But during the few months of his stay he produced little. He loitered for the most part at the old book stalls, snatching many a quiet delight from rare volumes. Shattered in health and broken-hearted he returned to the sunny South and accepted an engagement on the New Orleans *Times*. But he no longer seemed to have the power of work and steady application and the efforts were few and fitful. The end came with a fearful quickness and before life fairly began he passed away, thus adding another name to the list of short-lived, ill-fated southern poets; for Edward Coate Pinkney, too, died at 26, Phillip Pendleton Cook at 33, Henry Tim-

rod at 37, Sidney Lanier at 39, and Edgar Allan Poe at 40. Even amid the joy and abundance of the Christmas-tide, December 23, 1879, Irwin Russell was permitted to die in "great destitution."

Some nigh him mout 'a' acted de ravins
An' gin him a moufful to eat.

His remains were at first laid away in New Orleans, but subsequently removed to St.

Louis; so that even the pious wish of "One Mourner" was denied him—

An' I hopes dey lay him to sleep, seh,
Somewhar whar de birds will sing
About him de live-long day, seh,
An' de flowers will bloom in spring.

But he still lives as the "southern humorist," and his blithe spirit sweetens and refreshes our lives.

SOCIALISM IN ENGLAND.

BY GIOVANNI BOGLIETTI.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE ITALIAN "NUOVA ANTOLOGIA."

SOcialism in modern England is comparatively of recent growth. For more than thirty years after the death of the Chartist movement of 1848 it was almost never spoken of even. The infiltration of German socialistic ideas into the island finally succeeded in revivifying it. Yet it is evident that from its first reappearance on the scene the influence of the old Chartist notions was predominant. The Democratic Federation, which was founded in 1881 and took the name of the Social Democratic Federation in 1883, was the first organization to present a program containing reforms having socialistic tendencies. And this program emphasized the leading, the famous points of Chartism, among them being right of suffrage for every adult male, annual Parliaments, pay for members of Parliament and election expenses defrayed by the state, proportional representation, abolition of the House of Lords and of every hereditary authority, and suppression of all state churches.

Together with these old demands were new ones that smacked of the new socialism, such as obligatory construction of houses for operatives and farmhands to be let at prices sufficient to cover the expense of construction and maintenance, free and obligatory instruction for all classes, with at least one free meal a day, a normal working day of eight hours for all trades, a graded income tax, cumulative in its operation, on all incomes exceeding three hundred pounds

sterling a year, state management of all railways, municipal control of gas companies, street car corporations, and the city water works, nationalization of land, and organization of industry and agriculture under the control of the state and on the coöperative principle.

This program, like every other socialistic program which is or claims to be practical, does not possess an absolutely categorical rigidity. It can be greatly modified, one point being insisted upon more than another according to the opportunities and the movement of ideas.

The Social Democratic Federation, not admitting of ties with any of the existing political parties, remained like a body shut up within the country and possessing but slight elasticity. Consequently its program is more a personal expression of its leaders, particularly of Hyndman, than anything else. This program was taken up by the Workingman's party formed a few years later under the auspices of Cunningham Graham, Champion, John Burns, Tom Mann, Keir Hardie, and some others. Its platform was the same as the Federation's slightly modified. Afterward a socialistic municipal program was added to it.

But the Workingman's party was soon submerged in the Independent Labor party, broader and more comprehensive, which was formed at the beginning of 1894, through the efforts of Keir Hardie especially. This assumed a very different

program. As its name itself indicates, the Independent Labor party desired alliance neither with the Tories nor with the Liberals. It was noticed that the so-called representatives of labor sent to the House of Commons by the votes of the factory hands always voted for the Liberals; so much so that Chamberlain stigmatized them as the "fetchers and carriers" of the Gladstonians. It is true that Liberalism had always been thought to be the natural friend of the laborer, but it was high time that this notion should end. The Independent Labor party proposed to act for itself, with its own forces and with a program wholly its own. But how was it to acquire strength? Above all how was it to form a nucleus of representatives in the House of Commons exclusively devoted to the cause of labor?

In January, 1895, Keir Hardie sorrowfully admitted that England holds many Conservative operatives who in some districts are in a majority even. They feel the need of defending the church, the monarchy, the House of Lords, and so on. They must be wrong, yet their attitude is certain. In order, then, to possibly attract these operatives to himself, Hardie was forced not to touch on their weak points. Accordingly he formulated a program which excluded all things of a political nature and dealt with social reforms only, in regard to which both the Conservative workingmen and the socialistic operatives were naturally in accord. So it was that in February, 1894, the program of the Independent Labor party was born at Manchester.

This program has the following points: a legal working day of eight hours, abolition of supplementary work, of piece-work, and prohibition of work by children under fourteen years of age, suitable subsidies and pensions for the sick, for those unfitted for work by age or misfortune, for widows and orphans—said subsidies or pensions to be paid from the proceeds of a tax on incomes—primary, secondary, and university instruction free and unsectarian, remunerative work for the unemployed, taxation of unearned incomes (incomes from invested capital) up to their total extinction, substitution of the

principle of arbitration in international disputes, and a consequent universal disarming.

Contrary to the Independent Labor party and the Social Democratic Federation the Fabian Society does not repel alliances with the political parties, but rather seeks them, being disposed to vote with the one which offers it the most. The socialists not being numerous enough to form a party of their own in Parliament, the Fabians believe that these are the only possible tactics for the present. It is true that toward the end of 1893 the Fabians, disgusted with the Liberals, who, they believed, betrayed them, or practically did, abandoned that party and went so far as to join the Independent Labor party. But this was merely a momentary madness. Persevering in such an undertaking was neither in their temperament nor in their program. Although the Fabians are not a party of action nor wont to put forward their own candidates, yet they also have their program. They demand municipal and parliamentary suffrage for every adult, pay for members of Parliament, taxation of unearned incomes, municipalization of land and local industries, free instruction, and some other points of a political and social nature. Yet the Fabian Society has chiefly in view the propagation of the socialistic gospel, proposing, as the Fabians themselves modestly say, "to furnish in turn to each of the political parties in power ideas and principles of social rearrangement."

The Radicals also have a program which is collectivist in some parts. Among other things they demand the municipalization of city lands, a special income tax, a tax on the royalty of mines, as well as the construction of workingmen's houses and free instruction. On this account Sidney Webb rightly says, in his "Socialism in England," that the English Radicals would belong to the Socialist Democrats in Germany. It is certain that these Radicals have none of the individualistic radicalism of fifty years ago left. They have abandoned the well-known principles that the "best government is the one which governs the least," that free competition is the best guarantee of a good,

sound industrial life, that every possible aid should be given to the spirit of individual enterprise, and for them they have substituted these others: that the best government is the one which administers most and best, that the law must find the means of eliminating bad competitors to the advantage of the better ones, that so far as possible those industries which answer some great public service should be organized and controlled for the benefit of the public. And so in regard to many other points which concern the political and industrial ordering of the country.

The socialistic program for London which Webb has so amply developed in his "London Programme" also deserves mention. This would serve as a model for municipal socialism in all English towns. In 1888 already the Radicals had formulated a program for London which could be taken as in some degree collectivist. It demanded a radical reform in taxation so as to lighten the taxes of the operatives in every art and trade and increase the taxes of those who live on incomes, that is to say on the labor of others, so as to destroy gradually and definitely these social parasites. Besides it demanded the legal recognition of a minimum rate of wages and a maximum of working hours; the exclusion from every municipal or state contract of the power to sublet; aids, subsidies, and pensions for sick or incapacitated laborers; and above all the construction of operatives' houses and the gradual elimination of the contractor and private capitalist through the municipal organization of all public services, such as water, gas, street railroads, lighting, markets, hospitals, libraries, parks, and so forth.

How do the two great English parties stand in respect to these different socialistic programs? Of course it is evident that neither Conservatives nor Liberals can accept many of the innovations they demand, which in their nature would inevitably lead to a reconstruction of society on different bases from those on which it now rests. But some of the contemplated reforms are perfectly agreeable to almost

any particular party, and at the most would be merely a question of measure and opportunity. Yet which of the two, Conservative or Liberal, is more disposed to follow the socialists and admit portions of their programs?

I have already said that until recently the idea has prevailed in England that the Liberals were the natural friends of labor. Indeed the so-called labor members of Parliament always stuck closely to the Liberal party in order to obtain from it as much help as possible for labor. The Liberals had even promised certain innovations in their Newcastle program which almost surprised the socialists themselves. But it appeared afterward as though these promises were made on the eve of the general elections with the sole object of winning the socialistic vote. Whether this charge is a calumny or not, the fact remains that none of the semi-collectivist points in the Newcastle program were taken up under the Gladstone ministry. The result is that the socialists and the workingmen in general have been somewhat alienated from the Liberal party. At the present time the two are in complete disaccord, and it seems as though a long time must elapse before they may come together again.

Socialists and Tories, on the other hand, seem likely to reach an agreement. Many reasons bring them together and no serious motive for antipathy separates them. The socialists have very little concern for the reforms of a political nature which constitute the supreme aspiration of the radical Liberalism of to-day, such as Irish home rule, abolition of the House of Lords, suppression of the established church. At all events they desire social reforms to precede these. Hence a basis for a good understanding between the socialists and the Conservatives. Besides, the socialists cannot forget that it was the Conservatives who began and carried through the greatest reforms of the century. They owe to the Conservatives the abolition of the Corn Laws in 1846, the larger part of the factory legislation, the electoral reform of 1867, and democratic self-government for Lon-

don and the rural districts. The Conservatives have also passed most of the social measures of the last ten years.

This active coöperation of the upper classes in the solution of the social question cannot fail to be of good augury. It certainly makes the class conflict in England less harsh and exasperating. It is a remote result of the "education" which Disraeli said he wished to give the Conservative party, so far behind in reforms in his day and so opposed to them. Peel, to be sure, had begun this education when he abandoned the protective system for free trade, for which Disraeli accused him of stealing the Liberals' thunder. But in Disraeli's case it was the result of long meditated considerations. He was convinced that the aristocracy, which is an essential element of the English state, could not be saved, and save the country at the same time as itself, without actively mingling in the reform movement and competing with the Liberals in the solution of the great social and political problems of the day. The liberal evolution of the Tory party may have had its drawbacks, but it had the great advantage of exciting a movement of sympathy for the upper classes among the toiling masses.

What do the Conservatives offer the socialists in their program? Contrary to the Liberal method the Conservatives promise but little. They have no actual program of social reforms and it is necessary to look at the writings of their leaders in order to learn what measure they may be likely to adopt in this direction. The most generally approved reform which these leaders advance is a permanent commission of conciliation and arbitration to define controversies between workingmen and their employers, as well as a series of preventive measures to diminish the number of the unemployed, which is constantly increasing. Next in order are pensions for old age and certain provisions regarding the infirm, poor orphans, and abandoned children. Finally some have recently advocated the use of the kindly offices of municipalities to aid the operatives to buy their own houses,

and the exclusion of foreign workmen from English soil.

The present colonial secretary, Chamberlain, a former Liberal, is the most active in pushing social reforms among the Tories. His old program was based on the principle that ownership is a fetish, and it included a larger local government, free instruction, a graduated income tax, suppression of the established church, the establishing of fair rents in England and Scotland as well as Ireland, and free trade in land. Since the adoption of these principles he has become associated with the Tories, and his new political surroundings may have influenced his socialistic views. In an article published in 1892 he insists on the following points: Legal reduction of the working day for miners and laborers employed in perilous or difficult undertakings, creation of arbitration boards, indemnification for accidents not due to carelessness, and provision in case of death for the widows and orphans, pensions for the aged and deserving poor, limitation and control of foreign immigration, granting power to local authorities to facilitate the construction of better tenements for the operatives, as well as to facilitate the acquisition of their own houses by the tenants.

These points make up a practical program which answers the most urgent and reasonable needs of the working classes. The drawback about it seems to be that it may be the program of the man alone and not of the Tory party. Yet the socialists seem disposed to accept it on account.

The important and decisive thing for the socialists at present is to obtain control of the government. The progressive popularizing of political institutions should hasten their advent to power. However much a certain fraction of the socialists may affirm that they have in mind social reforms only and are not thinking of reforms political, this attitude can only be a temporary resolution on their part dictated by tactical considerations and political opportunism. The English socialists still strongly insist on two changes of a political nature: the pay of members of Parliament, which would al-

low a great number of labor representatives the present time, instead of leading to the to enter Westminster, and political suffrage organization of socialistic democracy, should for every adult male. These they think lead to a monarchy or an aristocratic oligarchy! All things are possible. For us of the politics and destinies of the country. it is sufficient to note the symptoms of our Yet suppose they were mistaken. Suppose day and the present trend of things. The all the political reforms imagined down to future is for God and posterity.

CHRISTMAS CAROL.

BY NATHAN HASKELL DOLE.

ANGELS, bright angels o'er Bethlehem hills,
Carol the song that a universe thrills!

Listen, ye shepherds whom wonderment fills.

This is the song

Of the heavenly throng—

Children and sages

For ages

Shall marvel to hearken the message it tells:—

“Good tidings! Great joy! All nations are blest!

A Savior is born! Christ the Lord has come down!

The babe ye shall find on his mother's breast

In a manger in David's town.”

Angels, bright angels o'er Bethlehem town,

Sing of the Lord that to earth has come down—

Christ, who renounces an infinite crown!

This is God's plan

For the rescue of man.

Trouble and sorrows

He borrows—

To suffer and die for a Savior's renown.

“Good tidings! Great joy! All nations are blest!

A Savior is born! Christ the Lord has come down!

The babe ye shall find on his mother's breast

In a manger in David's town!”

Angels, bright angels on reverent wing,

Poised o'er the fields exultingly sing!

Glad is the message to mortals ye bring.

Sorrow and pain

Will smite us in vain,

Savior all glorious

Victorious!

Where, grave, thy victory? Death, where thy sting?

“Good tidings! Great joy! All nations are blest!

A Savior is born! Christ the Lord has come down!

The babe ye shall find on his mother's breast

In a manger in David's town!”

WOMAN'S COUNCIL TABLE.

PROGRESSIVE HOUSEKEEPING.

BY JANE KINGSFORD.

II.

THE terms "light" and "power" have recently come into wider use in everyday language because they have acquired new meaning. With the electric light entering so many of our houses it is not strange that housekeepers begin to ask for more information in regard to the conversion of the electric current to other uses. The cold and silent wires that enter the house from the street seem at first very mysterious, yet when we see the safe and convenient light spring up we accept it without hesitation and wonder if this is all. More recently we have seen that the same wire that brings the light boils the tea urn, cooks the breakfast cakes, and warms the invalid's bed. In offices and restaurants we see that the same wire that gives light by night whirls the ventilating fan by day. The swift fans that stir up such a grateful breeze in warm rooms give us the right hint—work.

As housekeepers looking out for anything that aids or lightens our work we at once ask if the current can do work in the house. Is the current in our lamps convertible into work? It is, and just as easily as it is converted into heat in the kitchen it can be converted into work in the sewing room. The sewing machine stands near the electric light. Put the proper appliance on the machine and connect it by a wire with the light bracket and we shall have the current doing useful work. We can now sit at the machine and at a touch make it run fast or slow at will, while all we need do is to guide the work to the flying needle.

The apparatus used to convert an electric current into motion (which means power) is called a motor, and already electric motors are common everywhere, doing every ordinary kind of useful work. In the house

an electric motor can be used to drive a fan, run the sewing machine, turn the wringer, operate the dish-washer or the churn, handle the dumb-waiter, or do anything about the house that requires power. It cannot sweep, dust, or make beds, tend the fire, or wait on the door bell. It can ring the bell, sew, wash, iron, carry dishes up and down stairs, chop meat, do any ordinary kitchen work that requires labor without thought. These are not the mere "claims" of the makers of electric motors, but the statement of what has been done in the way of new aids for the progressive housekeeper.

Naturally the prudent housewife will ask at once concerning the cost. An electrical motor, however small, is comparatively costly. They cannot be cheaply made or they will be inefficient and useless. The current costs more than gas and much more than labor. A first-class sewing machine operator can be hired for three dollars a day; she will run her own machine and it is difficult to tell how much of her time and strength is spent in doing it. At the same time if she could give her whole time and energy to merely guiding the fabric to the needle we know she would do more work and better work. We think the foot motion in sewing is of little consequence, and yet it is a real expenditure of vital energy. Only when we put a motor on the machine do we discover what a relief it is to escape the drudgery of working the treadle. The cost is therefore relative. The motor appears to cost more than labor, but the motor may be the cheaper if the labor is very valuable.

Housekeepers should not be asked to work machines. We should only guide them and mere power should be obtained from motors. The mechanic insists on

power to run his lathe. All his energy must be given to guiding the work. So it will some day be in housekeeping. The labor should be given to the electric motor and only the guidance of work should be left in the housekeeper's hands. The housekeeper's time is too valuable to herself and others to be spent in mere manual labor that can be done by a machine. Thus what seems the most costly may be the cheapest.

The progressive housekeeper sees in her drawing-room still another use for the electric current. There is the piano, the music box, and the organ. The strength, time, and labor required to obtain even a reasonable degree of skill on the keyboard is often a matter of serious consideration. The demands of social life, of home life, of education, and the intellectual life make us pause and wonder if it is worth while to give so much time to mere technical skill in music. We want music, we want to know about music and to be able to appreciate it, we do not want to be very skilful players. It costs too much and we can be musicians without being players.

That this is the thought of many housemothers is clearly shown by the rapid in-

crease in the number of automatic musical instruments. Music boxes, self-playing pianos and organs have been brought in the past few years to a high degree of perfection, and more recently the electric motor has been applied to pianos, organs, and orchestrions. Not long ago I had the pleasure of hearing a grand piano and a pipe organ played together in a duet by means of an electric motor operating an automatic keyboard. The operator changed the stops at will and controlled the speed or time of the music; all the rest was automatic. One objection to the reed organ and the pipe organ in the parlor is the labor of blowing the bellows. The electric blowing-engine and electric motor obviate all this and the musician has only to handle the keys. The playing can also be automatic. Another step is to apply an electrical action and then the keyboard may be at a distance from the instrument. The same current that lights our houses can thus cook for us or be of service in the sick room, or may take up the drudgery of the kitchen and laundry, or may contribute to our pleasure in the drawing-room and music room. It is to these things the progressive housekeeper is looking in the hope that they may be of use in every home.

A SYMPOSIUM—THE MARKETS OF SOME GREAT CITIES.

BOSTON MARKETS.

By Mrs. Mary J. Lincoln.

AFTER strolling through the markets in New York, Philadelphia, Washington, New Orleans, and San Francisco, and then returning with a critic's eye to the old familiar stalls of Faneuil Hall and Quincy markets one can but be impressed with the fact that Boston markets are greatly lacking in picturesque features.

There is an almost entire absence of effort to attract the eye of customers, by tasteful display of goods or artistic decoration of booths; or, if there be the effort, the result is anything but artistic as compared with that obtained in other cities.

On the sidewalks or in carts backed up

to the curbing one will find in the spring a brilliant display of potted plants and flowers for the gardens, in the autumn another supply for indoor cultivation, and just before the holidays great masses of Christmas greens will fill all the available space; but one will look in vain at other times for any attractive floral effects. Perhaps this may be accounted for by the evident absence of a woman's hand in the arrangement, for scarcely a woman can be found in charge of a stall or selling wares, except the few old women who, at some seasons of the year, stand or sit about the steps, amid uninviting surroundings, clad in unattractive costumes, and sell herbs or old-fashioned garden flowers made up into stiff bouquets with an utter

disregard of harmonious color combination. Possibly another reason for this lack of picturesque effect may be that in Boston probably fewer women of the middle, well-to-do class go to market for their daily supply than is the case in other cities, and it would appear that no great effort is made to attract them there. True a few of the wealthier women go once or twice a week to order from their favorite dealers, but the telephone order is rapidly taking the place of personal inspection, and the larger number of the women one would encounter in a morning stroll would be the foreign women of the poorer classes.

In the smaller markets which are rapidly multiplying in the residential district more attempt is made to have an attractive display, and many of these stores are quite artistic. They are generally clean and commodious, and in many places everything in the shape of food—groceries, milk, butter, fruits, vegetables, fish, and meat—can be found at one place, and will be delivered promptly, clerks calling regularly for orders, or not, as the housekeeper prefers.

So that unless one has a large family or room to store a large supply it hardly pays to go to the Faneuil Hall market. The difference in retail prices will be more than balanced by car fares and express charges, for as a rule the large markets do not deliver goods.

But if Boston markets lack in picturesqueness they excel in historical interest, for Faneuil and Quincy are names closely associated with many stirring events in our country's growth and history. In fact it is somewhat disappointing to strangers who visit Faneuil Hall for the first time to find that "the old cradle of liberty which has been so often rocked by Boston's patriotic citizens" is over an old dingy market, and surely its approaches do not indicate that Boston citizens of the present day have any special pride in this historic edifice.

BALTIMORE MARKETS.

By Agnes M. Lathe.

EVERY true Baltimorean believes that his birthplace is "the gastronomic center

of the universe," and every visitor after an experience of the city's hospitality agrees with him. No one would deny that the Baltimore markets are fine, and many would assert that in all the United States they are the best.

This preëminence in eatables is due to Baltimore's geographical position. Situated on Chesapeake Bay, it obtains in abundance all varieties of fish; by means of its through routes to the West it secures the best of meats, while by its direct communication with the South it supplies itself with southern fruits and vegetables. Here strawberries come earliest and melons tarry longest.

The markets were of the first concern to the settlers of Baltimore. As early as 1751 a subscription was started "for purchasing a lott or lotts whereon to build a market." The scheme failed, however, and it was not until 1763, and then by the help of a public lottery, that a market was completed. The building was of two stories, the second one being used for "public assemblies, dances, jugglery now and then, and other matters of public concern." For twenty years this one market, of which no trace now remains, was sufficient. But in 1783, when the population had reached 8,000, three more were needed, and to-day, with 500,000 inhabitants, the city requires eleven. It keeps them under municipal control through a "clerk of the markets"—an official appointed by the mayor and the city council.

The plan of all the markets is substantially the same. They vary from half a square to a square in width and from one to four squares in length. Through the center, running lengthwise, is a broad aisle upon both sides of which are the meat stalls. To the right and left of this central passage are narrower aisles for the sellers of vegetables and provisions. Beyond these are the fish—in which the markets of Baltimore are especially rich. Perch, trout, taylor, pike, and delicious shad are brought quickly from the Susquehanna, while lobsters, crabs, turtles, and oysters come directly from the Chesapeake. Below the fish counters, at the edge of the build-

ing, the fruit is stacked and the flowers are displayed.

The various markets are open different days in the week. Certain ones have for their days Mondays and Thursdays, others have Tuesdays and Fridays, while still others have Wednesdays and Saturdays. All agree, however, in being open Saturday afternoon and evening. Many Baltimore housekeepers trade at but one market, buying in two or three visits sufficient for the entire week. Others patronize two or even three markets, very often, however, dealing with the same men; for very many marketmen rent stalls in a number of markets. The fact that so many of the purchasers carry home their own provisions, and also that the principal marketmen buy directly from the producer, without the intervention of a middleman, reduces the cost. Thus it is possible in Baltimore to supply a table in abundance and in variety at a comparatively small price.

Every stranger to the city includes the markets in his round of sight-seeing. Perhaps the most attractive one to visit is the Lexington, and certainly the best time to see it is Saturday evening. For then the building is brilliantly lighted with gas, the fruit is polished and arranged most carefully, and the flowers are most artistically grouped. Market-wagons from the country line the street. Basket-venders block the sidewalk. The market is crowded with eager sellers and buyers. All Baltimore is out, young and old, rich and poor, black and white.

CHICAGO MARKETS.

By Antoinette Van Hoesen Wakeman.

CHICAGO is the largest distributing point for fruits and vegetables in this country, and the striking feature of its markets is excessive abundance. The various products of the vast, flat plains in the midst of which it is located; the great variety of semi-tropical fruits of the Pacific coast; the early and late vegetables and fruits of the Southern States, South America, and the islands come pouring into Chicago daily. Strawberries are received here from Seattle and shipped

to Montreal, and the express trains which deliver and take away various perishable commodities run on the same schedule time as limited passenger trains. Half the bananas grown on this side of the sea are brought to Chicago.

In the language of dealers, Chicago has one of the "closest markets" in this country. In other words it is possible to buy almost all products of the soil for less money in Chicago than in other great commercial centers of America.

It is well known that Chicago is the largest grain market in this country and it is claimed that, with the exception of London, it is the largest fruit market in the world. During the summer and fall South Water Street, which is a moderately wide thoroughfare, is for a number of blocks so crowded with tons upon tons of all sorts of fruits and vegetables that there is barely a difficult passageway in the street for carts, and a narrow opening along the sidewalk where pedestrians can with difficulty make their way. It is doubtful if there is to be found the duplicate of this street in any other city. It is, in fact, Chicago's great, conglomerate, central market.

Although Chicago has no great market save South Water Street it has several department stores where one can purchase anything from a handsome silk gown to a carrot for one's soup. In these stores are found all sorts of foods, including meats. There are also departments devoted to household supplies. In fact, omitting the question of quality, every demand of a family, including all sorts of garments and head-gear, can be found in these big shops.

Another feature of the Chicago market is that many short-season, perishable fruits are to be found here almost the whole year round; as for instance strawberries, in prime condition, are in the markets nine months of the year and peaches are in the market six months out of the twelve.

When it comes to sea foods, although Chicago is a long way inland, such are the admirable facilities for quick cold-storage transit that the supply is abundant, the prices moderate, and the quality good.

There is no city where milk and cream of excellent quality can be obtained at a more reasonable price. The same can be said of meats of all sorts. In fact the cost of living in Chicago is much less than in most large cities.

SAN FRANCISCO MARKETS.

By Mabel C. Craft.

Down muddy, narrow streets, ankle-deep in the winter, where great teams stand huddled in bunches, with horses inextricably mixed, where cars are wedged in and cannot pass, with conductors shouting and teamsters swearing, past sailors' boarding-houses where half-drunken loafers lounge and stare—such is the location of San Francisco's city marts.

The streets are like clotted spider-webs, where commerce is far too congested to make a private carriage possible. It is down town, almost on the edge of the bay, within sound of the whistles of the ferries, accessible to wholesalers, but far removed from the residence portion of the town.

The region is slippery and slimy, full of stale odors and unspeakable smells, with sidewalks thick with fish scales, blood, scraps of meat, and vegetable refuse.

We have products in our markets fit to rank with any on earth—vegetables, fruits, fish, and flesh—as sweet and wholesome, plentiful and tempting as any that could be set out. The array is orderly, and a day in the markets, from the early morning when the vegetables come in, their fresh skins covered with cold dew, and the fish with living, glistening scales and eyes not yet glazed arrive from the dripping nets, until evening, when the stalls are partially emptied of their wares, would create an appetite in the most *blasé* constitution.

The credit belongs to the wares entirely. None of it belongs to the markets themselves—their ceilings artistically festooned with cobwebs and the floors a mosaic of soggy sawdust. The wooden stalls are marred and ragged of edge, though some have marble slabs for counters. The interior decorations are of the limp tapestry of hanging poultry and game, graceful ropes

of blood-red peppers, pearl-hued onions, and hard, glittering, amber-like ears of corn, to say nothing of ruddy crawfish and blue and silver herrings, piled in a profusion the more artistic because unstudied.

San Francisco's largest markets are on Sacramento and California Streets, between Kearney and Montgomery Streets, and on Sutter Street and Grant Avenue. There is market inspection, but this goes to the quality of the food, not to the sanitary condition or cleanliness of the markets themselves. In some the dirt and squalor is appalling, and in all the confusion, waste, and generally littered appearance of the whole place is picturesque in the extreme, but not business-like. Enough vegetables are wasted every day to make free soup for the entire poor of the city.

In all the city markets eatables of all kinds are sold in adjoining stalls. Fish adjoin vegetables, then come butter, cheese, and eggs, and so on. There seems to be no regulation of price. In one fish-stall crabs will be two for fifteen cents, at another stall just over the aisle, where the customers are wealthier, shell fish, no better nor larger, retail for fifteen cents apiece.

Probably no markets in the world can show so great a variety of home-grown things as those of California. Fruit this year has been singularly good, cheap, and plentiful. In former years boat loads have been destroyed to keep up the price, but this year consumers have had the benefit of nature's bounty.

The fish from the bay are of a hundred varieties, very large and well flavored, very cheap, and mostly sold by the brown Italians, who catch them in their lateen-rigged boats.

The profusion of fruit—tropical and temperate—the many vegetables and fishes at Christmas time are peculiarly remarkable. In the beauty of it all one forgets one's purse and the grimy market-place— forgets that markets should be clean and light and in a good part of town— forgets everything except the gracious abundance of good things to smell and see and taste in a California winter time.

MODEL BEDROOMS.

BY THE FAMILY DOCTOR.

IN the long winter nights, when the serenades of the freight locomotives make sleep impossible, I have often been haunted by the memory of a drowsy, old-fashioned farmstead in the Tennessee highlands where I once passed a few weeks of my midsummer vacations. The house had been built for a hotel in the bygone days of stage-coach travel, and had rooms enough for a dozen boarders, but was too far from railroads to maintain its popularity, even if the caterers had not limited their enterprise to the produce of the next neighborhood.

There were no carpets and no easy chairs—no comforts whatever, in fact, from a metropolitan boarding-house point of view, and I afterward used to wonder what could have produced a feeling so akin to homesickness, till an analysis of my recollections proved my yearnings to center about a second-story bedroom on the west, or woodward, side of the building. In the front rooms one could hear the creaking of the gate and the kicking of the mules in the rickety stable, but on the west side all was still—utterly and persistently still—for hours together, and the occasional whispers from the cliffs, where the old mountain pines exchanged the mementos of the past, somehow seemed to blend with silence as readily as the boom of distant breakers.

Silence, abstractly considered, means only a pause between audible or irritating sounds; but at the end of a weary day the protraction of such pauses implies a good many other things. It means the absence of unrest, it means deliverance from nervous shocks that oblige the brain to institute and countermand incessant alarms; that disconnect the train of your thoughts as Tesla's interruptor breaks up the galvanic current; that side-track your dreamland excursions and repulse the hovering angels of peace.

A few hours' surcease of worry in all those forms is a luxury almost unknown to millions of our fellow-men, but some negative blessings are pretty sure to be appreciated even if their rarity should have created doubts of their very existence. The kind-hearted mother of the poet Goethe once traveled in the company of a daughter of Dr. Zimmerman, the half-crazy misanthrope who wrote a book on "Solitude," and made his folks wish him in the solitude of the grave. The Goethes had just finished their supper, and after a few minutes' chat were about to step out on the terrace of the hotel when their traveling companion suddenly flung herself on a lounge and burst out in a flood of uncontrollable tears.

"What is the matter, my dear friend? Are you sick?" asked Madame Goethe in surprise.

"Yes, sick to death of such a life as mine," sobbed the poor girl—"nothing but teasing and scolding and bullying from morning till night, and I have stood it for years because I did not know the difference, but I cannot help knowing it now after experiencing the heavenly peace of a family life like yours."

The paradise of rural peace, too, recommends itself on short acquaintance, but is apt to revolt the soul at the thought of the miseries endured in the Hades of city noises, and tidings from a castle of silence may awaken vain regrets, like Emerson's visitors from fairyland,

Sweetly tormenting us with invitations to their own inaccessible home.

Yet domestic contrivances can do wonders in counteracting the rages of the outdoor world. In Cheyne Row, in the very heart of the British Babel, Mrs. Jane Carlyle surrounded her sensitive husband with architectural fortifications that banished ear-fretting noises and lung-fretting dust without excluding the light of the

sun. His study, with a roof-light like a photographer's shop, but no side windows, resembled a house within a house, and the padded double walls "muffled the shrillest sounds and killed all others dead." The roosters in the back alley could split their throats, the young lady across the way could hammer her piano till her pug dog rolled in spasms, but their storm of disharmony failed to penetrate the bulwarks; the refugee on the inside of those padded walls could defy them to do their worst.

Nine out of ten houses have a tolerably quiet room on the side furthest from freight depots and similar centers of disturbance, and even such inexpensive alterations as a change in the location of a window will make a considerable difference in the aggregate of troublesome noises. By way of experiment hang a couple of woolen blankets across the closed shutters and notice how many annoying sounds subside to a faint hum, how the silent intervals have lengthened from seconds to minutes. Ventilation, it is true, may be as important as sound slumber, but few landlords will refuse to let you compromise that matter by the construction of a little window—literally "wind-door"—or louver on any quieter side of the room which may happen to coincide with the direction of the prevalent air current.

After their experience with the four-footed nuisances of Craigenputtoch the Carlyles agreed with Bill Nye that "life has too many sorrows of its own to add a cat"; but your boy need not abolish his private zoo for all that; there are pets that sleep as soundly as village constables. No self-respecting poodle dog will bark at the man in the moon; rabbits, marmots, and squirrels are dumb companions in a literal and permanent sense of the word. The assisted immigrants called English sparrows should be routed as promptly as organ-grinders.

"The eye is at peace with the brain, the ear at war," says a noise-hating philosopher, and a scientific friend of mine once showed me an ingeniously-contrived substitute for those bedroom clocks that strike the hours, and often strike the plank from under a

dreamer's feet just as he is entering the wonder ship of the Argonauts. His clock ticked as low as if the hinges of the pendulum had been muffled, and had no alarm bell, but was connected with an electric burner that could be turned off and on, and with a wire string long enough to reach any desired corner of the room. A twist of the easy-moving lever made the dial shine like the face of Buddha in the night of transfiguration; another twist and darkness resumed its sleep-protecting sway.

Bedroom lamps are almost superfluous in this age of electric street lights, and at all events should be screened and burn low, though De Quincy is perhaps right that a mild light, resembling the silver glimmer of the moon, is most propitious to sweet slumber, "because on a background of absolute darkness fear is apt to paint her specters." It is true that there is no such thing as a total eclipse of light in the open air, and our forest-dwelling ancestors probably dreamed their prettiest midsummer-night's dreams in the twinkling glimpses of leaf-screened moonlight. An ivy tangle in front of a bedroom window can reproduce those conditions, and serve the additional purposes of sifting dust-whirls and intercepting light showers. It can do no harm to have a bedroom stove to counteract November mists or damp sea winds, but the fire should be allowed to subside before dark, for no careful observer can doubt the fact that stove heat rivals dyspepsia in breeding full-blooded nightmares.

The last thirty years have witnessed a wonderful improvement in the manufacture of good-sized, comfortable beds, at least in continental Europe—for the bench-like *Bett-stellen* of southern Germany never disgraced the hotels of the English-speaking nations. As early as 1685 a French traveler acknowledged the uniform excellence of the British dormitories—"clean rooms, often carpeted, always well aired, broad blankets, and solid, enormous bedsteads." The latter adjective really fitted the fact, if it is true that the "great bed of Ware" was twelve feet long by eight broad, with a canopy like a circus tent.

Bed curtains are not only entirely superfluous but positively ruinous to lung patients, who are thus obliged to breathe the same microbe-laden air over and over again; but broad, duplicate mattresses come under the head of rational luxuries and are out and out preferable to the woven-wire substitutes. Hammocks on board ship are a lesser evil, but on *terra firma* sleepers should build their hope of a sound night's rest on the firmest possible foundation, and the war against the cradle superstition should be waged without compromise. A modern educator denounces it as the cause of virulent digestive disorders and classes it with the paregoric outrage: "Never try to overcome sleeplessness by a resort to cradling and narcotics; the lethargy induced by rocking and cradling is akin to the drowsy torpor of a seasick passenger, and one might as well try to benumb a patient by a whack on the head."

Featherbeds have happily gone out of fashion, but few housekeepers have as yet

recognized the sanitary advantages of woolen blankets as compared with heavy-padded quilts that repress the organic exhalations and cause night sweats and troubled dreams.

While the body is kept comfortably warm the breathing of pure cold air is a positive luxury and the best lung-balm thus far discovered—at least to individuals who have freed their minds from the haunting dread of the night air superstition, for there is no doubt that vivid illusions can cause as well as cure diseases.

A good hard night frost that adds its screen of arabesques to your window curtains is really less dangerous than the brooding heat of the dog days; but the medium most propitious to sound slumber is a temperature of about 45° Fahrenheit—an average that can be enjoyed in the October nights of our North Atlantic States, and will perhaps be maintained the year round in the predicted era of scientific progress when we shall cool our houses in midsummer as easily as we now warm them in winter.

WOMAN'S WORK AND INTERESTS IN THE BERLIN TRADES EXPOSITION.

BY G. VON BEAULIEU.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE GERMAN "UEBER LAND UND MEER."

IN the building for the promotion of prosperity we were most attracted by the exhibitions of kindergartens. Berlin has four societies for training by the Froebel methods: the Froebel Society, the Pestalozzi-Froebel Home, the Society for Public Kindergartens, and the Society for the Fichte Public Kindergarten. All of these societies were represented here in a special room of the building and of course illustrated the cozy little apartments used in a kindergarten for class rooms.

Public kindergartens are especially beneficial in a great city. In those of Berlin are sheltered children whose parents work all day in factories or are otherwise employed away from home. After their study hours the little ones are still kept busied under supervision; furthermore upon request they receive dinner and afternoon luncheon all

for ten pfennigs, or about two and a half cents, a day.

The Froebel Society has founded three such public kindergartens: two in the north, where the greatest poverty prevails, and one in the south of Berlin; in addition to these it possesses three other kindergartens for the children of well-to-do families. The Society for Public Kindergartens has three institutions and the Society for the Fichte Public Kindergarten has one in the southeast of Berlin.

Besides its regular kindergartens the Pestalozzi-Froebel Home includes intermediate classes for pupils from five and a half to six years of age, elementary classes for those from six to seven and a half years, and finally girls' and boys' industrial schools in which children up to twelve years of age are instructed. All the pupils so desiring can

obtain dinners at the home for two and a half cents.

The Froebel Society as well as the Pestalozzi-Froebel Home maintains seminaries in which girls are trained to tend children and to become independent kindergartners. These seminaries are attended also by those who require the learning only to fit them better for their own homes.

The Pestalozzi-Froebel Home is conducted by a grandniece of Froebel—Mrs. Henriette Schrader. Its kindergarten has one distinguishing specialty in its method of instruction; that is the study of one subject for a month. This theme prevails during the whole month's instruction, giving it form and direction. In it the children must be educated thoroughly and the teacher must lead them up to correct thinking on all points connected with it.

We saw exhibited a class room of the Pestalozzi-Froebel Home. Before the little wooden benches provided with desks stood a large blackboard. On this cherries and cherry blossoms were drawn in chalk. The model from which they were drawn, a fresh branch of cherry blossoms, stood in a glass of water before the blackboard; ripe cherries modeled from wax lay beside them. Several of the children copied the cherries on little slates, some arranged five white petals in the form of a flower on colored paper, some made petals of white material and joined them on a little wooden stick which served as the stem of the blossom, others modeled the ripe cherries in wax or clay, a little stick serving for the stem.

The subject for another month is, for instance, the house. In order to bring it within the conception of the little people it is studied in connection with stories of little Red Riding Hood. The house is all explained in the Froebel busy plays. It is outlined on the table with little sticks, built up with building blocks, its lines are drawn on paper and perforated with needles, sewed in cards with gay colored thread, done in paper braided work, folded in paper; furthermore it is drawn in colored chalks, modeled in clay, and so on. Then in the busy plays, in the mother songs and roundelays

for a month information on the "house" is imparted. In this way the subject is made much more impressive and real to the little people than if some one merely told them the information or read it to them out of a book. By eye and ear, hand and foot the child gets the concept, shapes the object itself, and learns to know it thoroughly.

On the walls of the class rooms hung glass cases in which were displayed the gradations of the Froebel implements for busy games and modeling. One starts with the tiny fence rails and follows the drawing of lines and rings, the placing of threads, the dotting and perforating, the embroidering of lines. From the line one advances to the plain surface, cutting paper into different forms, making gay twisted work, folding the flat paper into little objects, such as birds, houses, boxes. Then follows the work in clay and paper and finally plastic work. It is touching to see here what the tiny industrious hands of the children have made; it is also pleasing when we know what enjoyment the little ones have had in their work, and with what rosy cheeks and sparkling eyes they have made all these little things.

The children also learn to make ornaments for the Christmas tree, and for the child Jesus' sake the little fingers move very willingly.

Under the pattern work we saw doll houses made from paper, wax, and sticks, which were exhibits from the Fichte Public Kindergarten.

The public kindergarten at Constance exhibited a whole pleasure and summer-house, with the outlying buildings and garden; the airy houses were made with peas strung on wire. Specimens of beautiful model work were made by the kindergartners. Among them some little silhouettes were works of art. They were cut with scissors from black paper and pasted on white cards.

The public kindergartens led up to the society for domestic regimen. At the time of its founding, in 1880, this society had only eight full colonies: now it has fifty-six full and twenty-three half colonies. The number of its local committees is to-day

233; 193 physicians are employed in it and altogether 3,144 children have been restored to health. These figures speak for themselves.

In the building for the regulation of the public welfare we found attractive and interesting exhibits from the royal institution for the blind at Steglitz. There are Persian knot work, pearl work on wire, basket work, rope work, modeling work, all done by the blind. Photographs illustrated the school and living rooms of the blind, in fact the whole arrangement of the institution. We saw here, too, the puncture writing for the blind and their maps in relief.

Domestic instruction for girls in the Berlin parish schools brought us into another department. The exhibits in this line were made by the society for the welfare of children dismissed from the schools. In 1893 the first attempt was made to instruct thirteen-year-old girls of the Berlin parish schools in the most necessary duties of ordinary family housekeeping, especially in the management of cooking. The instruction in both practice and theory was divided into forty four-hour sessions. These were distributed over the whole year so that one took place every week. The attempt prospered. It is hoped to solve in this way the hard problem of enlightening the masses. Other large cities now have introduced into their parish schools instruction in housekeeping for girls. Exhibited here were the means of teaching and learning the housekeeping course, the plans for instruction, the school apparatus, and views and ground plans of a school kitchen.

Another exhibit of women's work was the public kitchen, founded in 1866. There are in existence in Berlin sixteen kitchens of this kind and their work is unusually satisfactory. How many persons would get absolutely nothing warm to eat if these public kitchens did not provide for them! For six cents each one receives a quart of vegetables and three pieces of meat, for four cents four fifths of a quart of vegetables and one piece of meat. This exhibit consisted of the necessary utensils and

dishes for cooking the raw material and also photographs of the kitchens. The academy of the housewives' society displayed its skill in preparing food in the line of vegetables, fine pastry, and roast meat.

The next institution which we visited was that conducted by a society for children's kitchens. This society was founded in 1893 for the welfare of poor classes and during the winter, through its ten kitchens located in various parts of the city, it feeds poor children for a cent apiece or even for nothing. In order to show the public its methods and to push out into a larger circle the society had a kitchen in operation on the exposition grounds. It was billed as "Public Food at the Berlin Trades Exposition." This was very much larger than one of the ten children's public kitchens; it furnished food to five hundred persons daily.

In order to encourage enterprise the working committee of the trades exposition gave several thousand square meters of ground for disposal gratis; induced by this free provision for their factories many of the great manufacturers took an active interest in the exposition, as was shown by the exhibits of dishes, ovens, heating arrangements, and other voluntary contributions. By this means it was made possible to obtain for ten pfennigs, or two and a half cents, a plate of food, whether meat, vegetables, fruit, soup, or a plate containing various kinds of food. Ten pfennigs was the uniform price for any dish of food and also for any drink, whether coffee, cocoa, chocolate, or iced drinks. Thus was demonstrated the fact that it is possible under the circumstances existing to-day to provide the public with a cheap and appetizing food. Moreover every one was enabled to see how the kitchens for supplying the public were conducted.

Connected with the kitchen was found a garden with simple wooden benches and tables; covered colonnades also contained rows of dining tables. In the garden stood four tents, where the tickets for the refreshments were obtained. We bought two tickets of a young woman in one of the

tents and betook ourselves to the kitchen department. On the outer wall there was a poster on which the menu for the day might be read. There we saw named all possible kinds of soups; numberless kinds of meats, such as roast pork, roast veal, roast beef, Königsberg pounded meat, German beef-steak and so on; all manner of vegetables, both fresh and dried; and farinaceous food, fruits, etc. Upon giving our tickets to the young woman in charge and telling her what we wanted the things ordered were reached to us. Then with our plates of food and knives and forks wrapped in a paper napkin we betook ourselves to an empty table and there devoured with a keen relish our dinner bought for two and a half cents. The dinner was not large but it was appetizing.

Meanwhile more food was being cooked by steam in large, clean copper kettles. The most commodious of these kettles contained 450 quarts. All the kettles of the kitchen together contained 1,300 quarts of food. A cook dressed in white commanded

the girls in the chief kitchen; a Viennese cook was in charge of an adjoining kitchen reserved for the preparation of farinaceous food and warm drinks, including coffee, cocoa, and chocolate.

The heating arrangements of the kitchens are worthy of mention. In order that the gigantic patronage might be managed the different foods stood in a row on tables which were constructed expressly for this purpose by a manufacturer of ember ovens. These ovens, or ember heaters, were found under the table tops in what correspond to table drawers, and they kept the top of the tables constantly warm. The fuel in the removable drawers was perpetual. If it was desired to lessen the heat ashes were thrown on the fire; if to increase the heat the dampers were turned. The heating material, charcoal rubbish, was very cheap, being all bought directly from the manufacturers or importers, and for this reason the foods which it was used to cook could be offered at an astonishingly low price.

"LONG LIVE THE EMPRESS."

BY FLORA BEST HARRIS.

"**K**OGU, heika banzai!" A thousand, thousand ages to Her Imperial Majesty! "And who," asks the *Council Table*, "in the name of the star-spangled banner—'long may it wave'—has evoked this outburst of unrepudicated enthusiasm?" Certainly not one of the royal ladies beyond the Atlantic, for Europe just now is far removed from my narrow horizon; feminine royalty in China and Korea would require for discussion a lengthy chapter with explanatory side-dishes exceeding the capacity of this hospitable board; there is but one oriental empress near enough in sympathy to our western world for our half-comprehension in a brief sketch, and she is the joint ruler with the mikado of Japanese hearts in Dai-Nihon.

Her nobility of mind and character are, perhaps, oftener mentioned than her per-

sonal beauty; but beautiful she is, with the old, classical type of feminine loveliness in Japan. Like the fair princesses of Denmark, this royal lady came to her present estate from a life of comparative simplicity, not to say poverty, and like them she has been equal to its high requirements; but it is doubtful whether even the well-beloved Alexandra holds the regard of her future subjects as securely as this princess holds the hearts of the Island Empire, to-day.

Those of us who remember the silent, reverential awe which, even in New Japan, was the people's tribute to their sovereign marvel when echoes float to us of those mighty acclamations—spontaneous, heartfelt, irrepressible—which herald unmistakably the change from half worship to a simple wealth of loyalty and affection such as any monarch might covet.

A nation's affection, having at length found voice, has penetrated the barriers surrounding ladies of high degree, and the gentle empress now must know that she is dowered in her own right with the national love and faith.

I have long desired to share with readers of these columns some word or sign from this fair lady of a fair empire, but circumstances have not favored. Recently, however, Mrs. Iwamoto, editor of the Women's Department in an English monthly published in Japan, has written so much better of her beloved sovereign than a western admirer could that I am tempted to offer you some extracts from her article.

Writes Mrs. Iwamoto:

"It was in December of the first year of Meiji (1868), a year momentous in many other ways, that Princess Haruko Ichijo was singled out from among the numerous princesses of the blood to occupy the throne with the present emperor. She was in her eighteenth year, the emperor being her junior by two years. People said that it was her high character and unusual attainments rather than her personal beauty that prompted the decision. We naturally wonder whether the imperial couple, so young, ever dreamed that they were about to lead the nation through the interesting and wonderful career that the world has looked upon during the last quarter of a century.

"We are indebted to one of the city newspapers for mention of a refreshing little incident which occurred during their stay at their old home, the palace of Kyoto. Together they rambled through the gardens, recalling their early days among the familiar trees and shrubs, and we are told that the empress was invited to go up the stairs of the 'Shishinden,' the august audience hall where the mikado of old used to administer public affairs, and where no female had yet set foot.

"It is their daily custom to dine together in the evening, and undemonstrative as we naturally are it is said that no sign is wanting to show that they enjoy more than their share of conjugal felicity. Reports also

say that there never was a woman truer to the old teachings in respect to the womanly disposition and demeanor.

"Space would not allow us to narrate even what little we know of the daily life of the empress. Those who have had the pleasure of seeing the suite of imperial chambers will be able to surmise that there is more or less of compromise between the foreign and native in the style of living in the imperial household. The empress dowager alone chooses to live in the old native style. It is said that the empress has decidedly simple tastes, both in matters of table and wardrobe.

"Having no children around her one would naturally think that the empress would be lonely; yet she has a great deal to occupy her mind. She has her duties toward the ladies of the house, the least of whom does not escape her gracious attention. The strict decorum of the court, however, excludes all but those of noble birth from being her near attendants.

"She has always expressed intense interest in all that concerns the nation, whether it be a question of the year's rice crop or one of momentous diplomatic issue. She therefore keeps herself informed on all important subjects. The Japanese plenipotentiary, on the occasion of the recent treaty ratifications at Chefu was given a special audience after his return. He is not the only person who has been taken by surprise at the intelligent and sagacious questionings of Her Majesty.

"Little need be said about her literary accomplishments. Everybody knows that her special talent lies in the domain of the national literature. One of her poems has been set to music and is sung by school children all over the land. Critics are agreed on the fact that her style is decidedly classical. Very recently a beautiful composition in the form of a diary was made public, which is interesting not only in point of literary value but also on account of the noble sentiments it expresses.

"Her Majesty has always assiduously patronized woman's education, and there has

been no better incentive to ambitious girls all over the empire than her visits to the Woman's High Normal School of Tokyo."

Mrs. Iwamoto cannot be quoted at length on this point; and as the empress' interest in educational matters is, perhaps, better known to foreigners than some other characteristics it is sufficient for us to remember her own words on the subject—"The mind without learning is like a precious stone or metal mirror left unpolished. Of what avail is it?"

"Everybody," says Mrs. Iwamoto further, "is so familiar with the numerous deeds of charity by means of which Her Majesty has set an example to the women of the empire that only a slight mention is necessary.

"Her liberality toward the poor and distressed is unbounded, whether manifested in the form of money given to the sufferers from fire and earthquake, of floss silk sent to the freezing soldiers in North China, or in the shape of bandages of her own rolling and the substitutes for amputated limbs given to native veterans and Chinese captives.

"The languishing patients in the charity and Red Cross hospitals enjoy a boon envied by many prouder personages in the empire; for she speaks gentle words of comfort to the meanest of them. It was during one of her visits to the charity hospital that she and her ladies came upon a lone woman sorely afflicted. A decidedly offensive odor was perceived, and one of the ladies unconsciously applied her handkerchief to her nose. The empress was speaking to the sufferer in her gentlest tones, and the lady

in question never dreamed that she was taken notice of. After coming back to the palace the chief lady of the imperial household was ordered to administer a gentle reprimand to the offending lady."

Space forbids further quotation, but a touching prayer with which our article closes is a fair expression of the reverence which Japanese—men as well as women—feel toward their empress. The chivalrous attitude of the nation confirms what some of us aliens have long believed, that had not corrupted forms of Buddhism so largely supplanted the primitive faith woman would have held a higher position in Japan.

That ancient cult—"the way of the gods"—with its "heaven-illuminating goddess," the legendary ancestress of the imperial house, with its simple worship which once permitted priestess as well as priest to officiate at the shrines, points to a higher estimate of woman than that which obtained at a later day. For the sake of the sun-goddess, the fair first-born of the divine "first parents" of Japan, a daughter, even though she may precede the longed-for son, receives a warm fireside welcome. Perhaps, then, the goddess will pardon one who is a foreigner and afar off for offering that national ode which honors her imperial descendant in momentary homage to one who has never trodden "the high plains of heaven," but who seeks to make sunshine on our little earth:

Sovereign august, fair be thy reign,
Till smallest pebble of the plain
Becomes a rock with mosses grown,
And ages thousandfold have flown!



EDITOR'S OUTLOOK.

THE MADONNAS OF RELIGION AND ART.

THE history of Mary the Mother of Jesus is briefly told in the gospels, but it has had a marvelous development in worship, in legend, and in art. The singularly distinguished position of this daughter of Israel early arrested the attention and stimulated the imagination. As early as the fourth century the worship paid to Ceres was transferred to her, and in process of time all the nobility ascribed to feminine character in story and myth had centered in this gracious mother of the Lord. Every kind of devotion, every picturesqueness of homage or loyalty came to crown her as "Our Lady" in the days of chivalry.

No other woman has had a millionth part of the honors accorded enthusiastically and adoringly to the Jewish maiden who came to be called "the Queen of Heaven." To her was transferred even the intercessory offices and effectual prayers of her Son; this extravagance of worship is doubtless still paid to her by the humble peasantry of more than one country.

There is a reason—more than one reason—for this remarkable development of Mary's character and mission. Back of it all is the voiceless desire of the race for the redemption of its womankind—for race healing through the woman and the mother. Of this we need only say that the proof of the desire is seen in its results. The history of Christianity might be written from this point of view, the progress of woman. A man is often devout beyond the meaning of his own will, so an ideal may struggle and conquer in the bosoms of men who as yet know not their own meaning. Mary the Mother of Jesus symbolized the voiceless hope. The extravagance may be neglected; the honored, crowned, adored woman has been a mighty force in feminine progress.

The Virgin Mother in the gospels is a noble figure. Her character is very fully

outlined in Luke; and there is a singular accumulation about her name of qualities which command our modern respect and homage when they meet in a woman. One may almost say that Luke has painted our ideal woman.

In this picture of Luke Mrs. Jerneson (in "Legends of the Madonna") finds (1) trustful humility, (2) decision of character combined with prudence, (3) intellectual strength, (4) habits of reflection, (5) motherly devotion, and (6) courage and composure on the day of the crucifixion of her son. Worked out of the incidents from the few words reported as from her lips and from the statements of Luke, these deductions are materials for the development of a noble womanhood. They are in error, then, who find no special place for Mary in our religion; so large a figure, projected so far forward of general experience in its solidity, so full of gracious moral beauty, intellectual power, and heroism, could not be neglected by the Christian consciousness, could not fail to remain in the foreground of Christian story, could not fail to inspire in open worship or in subtle forms of admiration and reverence a deep affection and a striving to realize in Christian womanhood the same beauty and form of character.

This woman—the Madonna, or Mother—was painted for the churches by rude artists centuries before our modern art found her. Probably we may trust the opinion of some historians of art that at the first, and for some ages, the Madonna was represented alone, bearing no child, and in her solitary majesty pleading for the ideal woman of Luke's gospel. It is at least a pleasure to think that in such representations the ideal of redeemed womanhood might disengage itself from the accessories of worship and elevate the desires and hopes of worshippers.

Then the neglected babe was refound

and placed on her bosom or by her side. At first the babe was fully clothed—until the fifteenth century—and often he was richly clad; then art reacted to the nakedness of the Holy Child in the sixteenth century. No man can number the pictures of the Madonna. For fifteen centuries artists have painted the Virgin Mother for churches, for houses, for public galleries of art. The Virgin is painted standing, sitting, with only her child, or with an infant St. John or a group of children, with one or more of the apostles, or with a group of saints belonging to the country of the artist. She is painted alone for one purpose: to show Luke's maiden receiving the startling message of "the annunciation."

The limitations of art are set out cheaply by these pictures. The type of woman known to the artist gets upon his canvas. If the artist lived in Siena a pensive sentiment is expressed in the face of his Madonna; in Milan she is intellectual; in early Greek art hard lifelessness is seen; in Umbria a refined mysticism appears in the eyes; in Florence a kind of stately elegance breathes from the whole figure; in Venice a fascinating loveliness is presented to us; in Spain the whole figure is alive and speaking; in Flemish painting all is prosaic; in early German art simplicity reigns and charms us by the perfect singleness of the ideal.

These limitations reach farther still. The woman who served as a model, perhaps the woman whom the artist loved, is presented to us, often with only conventional religious suggestions. If the reader turns to pages 313-320 he will see these limitations in most of our pictures. The Sistine Madonna of Raphael is conspicuously triumphant over all such limitations. Many critics think this picture the greatest of all pictures; so much is expressed in the attitude and face. One must linger over it and look again and again to catch the emotions which struggle into speech in this glorious face.

Turning to others, note that Perugino gives us girlhood sobered by maternity; Romano subtle intellectuality; Müller serious-minded motherhood; Gabriel Max a

striking attitude with no special meaning; Hugo Vogel a Jewish woman—the rarest thing in Madonnas; Bodenhausen a face of singular purity. C. Froschl's Madonna is an audacity without excuse. This peasant mother with the rude hands and homely child satisfies no ideal. The strange thing in them all—except Raphael's—is the absence of religious suggestion and impulse. Perhaps, however, the artists built nobly in all this—worked from the large meaning of the Virgin Mother as ideal womanhood and motherhood.

GOOD ROADS AND GOOD MORALS.

It might be unsafe to say that "wherever the roads are good the morals are good," or that bad roads are a sure indication of bad morals among the people who live beside them. There would, however, be little risk in assuming that excellent highways are conducive to right living and to intelligent regard for the best that enlightened life affords. A road is always a thing of influence. From the cow-path up to the double-track railway, every line of habitual movement marked out by man and his domestic and commercial agents is a register of civilization from which history may be safely reckoned. Thrift and success naturally flow over the smoothest and shortest routes.

Wherever a broad, solid, and well-graded thoroughfare crosses a country it is quite sure to be thickly lined on either side with the results of intelligent and prosperous labor. Beautiful homes, well-kept farms, the hedges trimmed, the barns tastefully painted, thoroughbred cattle, flourishing crops, thriving towns—all of these may be seen from the best highways as we pass along. It is easy to make out the condition of a neighborhood so soon as a perfect description of its highways comes to hand, and a town without command of good roads always wears a benighted look.

The moral effect of rapid and easy transportation is so subtle and pervasive that we find it difficult to separate it from all the other elements of a people's prosperity and happiness; still we feel it and cannot be

mistaken as to its reality and extent. From the metropolis down to the country village it is plainly apparent that roads are the chief feeders of commerce; they are the channels of circulation for both urban and rural life. Where the old-time wooden wain still lingers and the log cabin serves for home we do not expect to find macadamized highways or to come upon stirring and thriving towns.

A tour into any of our mountain regions, where excellent thoroughfares are next to impossible of construction, will disclose the fact that without good roads it is hard to import enlightenment. Where travel is rough, unpleasant, slow, tiresome, life is almost sure to be stagnant or discouragingly retarded. True the people may be honest in their way and religious after a fashion, but their moral condition is feeble and benighted. Isolation from all that is new, invigorating, and progressive in thought, and from all that is stimulating in a physical way, is the doom of every community whose highways forbid free and pleasurable travel.

But there is something comforting and stimulating in dwelling beside a pleasant and much-traveled public road. The life of the highway is the best the country has. Along the road pass the strongest, cheerfulness, and most enterprising of our true yeomen, with their vigorous wives and sturdy children. What we see on that route cannot breed discontent. Men, women, and children take a great deal of happiness by contagion and infection. We are creatures of times, environments, and opportunities; and it is to the public road that we must look if we would get the first glimpse of every new thing as it approaches.

It has been well said that easy transit is the secret of brotherhood, because distance overcome is the measure of social solidity. A mile of impassable road completely breaks up the unity of sentiment upon which true moral safety rests. Our next-door neighbor may be a league distant, yet a bicycle and a good highway bring him very close; the town may be ten miles from our home, but the horseless carriage will

render the fact insignificant. On a good railway we fly from the winter snows of Boston to the balmy breezes of New Orleans in two days or less. It all depends upon a road.

Who shall say that life does not catch a tremendous moral force from the bettering of the highways? Churches, schools, workshops, manufactories, studios, libraries—the older and better the roads the more of these. Refined manners are spread far and wide where there is easy communication between the centers of urban culture and the scattered country homes. A rural population will not be rude and ignorant long after the lyceum, the public library, the enlightened pulpit, and the well-ordered school are within its easy reach. And with good roads will come country mail delivery by which the daily newspapers, the magazines, and the latest books of belle-lettres, science, and art will reach every home. Moral touch is moral encouragement, and when a whole people feel at once every thrill of warning, of challenge, of progress, there can be no sudden blow to freedom, no cataclysm involving irresponsible and innocent communities. The tough moral fiber of a nation depends for homogeneity upon a perfect national understanding, and this understanding is fed through the public carrier.

Upon investigation it is found that nearly all of the opposition to good roads comes from country people. As a rule our towns and cities show by their street improvements that urban people believe in clean, solid, well-drained, and carefully graded highways. Drive a little way into the country and you begin to jolt over inferior roads. Our people must be enlightened upon this great subject. Let our school teachers take up the theme, let our preachers feel and express its importance, let the press urge it until the people are educated. A nation cannot be truly great without a system of excellent common roads. The betterment of our highways will insure the vigorous advancement of patriotism, enlightened public sentiment, and sound morals.

CURRENT HISTORY AND OPINION.*

CHARLES FREDERICK CRISP.



EX-SPEAKER CHARLES F. CRISP.

IN the death of ex-Speaker Crisp, which occurred on October 23 in Atlanta, Ga., the South loses one of her most prominent men in public life. The son of American parents, Charles Frederick Crisp was born at Sheffield, England, in 1845. He was early accustomed to the atmosphere of public life, his father, mother, and an older brother and sister being members of the dramatic profession. Before the close of 1845 his parents brought him to America. They had him educated in the public schools of Savannah and Macon, Ga. In 1861 Mr. Crisp joined the Confederate Army, serving as lieutenant until his capture by the enemy in May, 1864. Upon his release, in 1865, he joined his parents at Ellaville, Schley County, Ga., and began the study of law. The next year he was admitted to the bar. In politics he was a Democrat. He entered his first public office in 1872 as solicitor-general for the southwestern judicial district and about this time moved to Americus, Ga., which since then has been his home. In 1873 he was reappointed to the office of solicitor-general for a term of four years. At the expiration of

the four years he was appointed judge of the Superior Court of the same district, and was continued in office by election in the General Assembly of the state in 1878 and again in 1880. In 1882 he resigned the judgeship and was elected by the Democratic party to represent the third Georgia district in the United States Congress. His services as representative began with the Forty-eighth Congress in 1891 and extended through the Fifty-fourth Congress, ending in 1895. They made his name well known throughout the Union, especially during the Fifty-second and Fifty-third Congresses, when he was speaker of the House. At the primaries of June 6 the Democratic party of his section gave Mr. Crisp the nomination for United States senator to succeed Senator Gordon whose term expires this year. Mr. Crisp is survived by his wife, two sons, and two daughters.

The Mail and Express. (New York, N. Y.)

His consistency as a Democrat remained unchallenged until he surrendered to the sophistries of free silver and became a vigorous supporter of that wing of the party. Despite his errors of financial judgment his death is to be generally regretted, as that of a very able man, whose intense honesty always held out a hope of his conversion to sound money.

The Chicago Evening Post. (Ill.)

Faithful, frank, honest, discreet, and fearless, Charles Frederick Crisp had a strength of character to which partisans of his faith could rally. He was a clear-minded, level-headed, and successful lawyer before he entered the political arena, and when he was elected to Congress he gave up his private business in order to devote himself to public affairs. The loss of Georgia and the South in the death of ex-Speaker Crisp is a national loss, which we of the North are glad to acknowledge, for no

sectionalism of political platforms and campaigns can render the death of an honest, able, and sincere statesman a matter of indifference to the whole people. The safety of the republic rests in the possession of men like Mr. Crisp.

The Argus. (Albany, N. Y.)

Death is sorely bereaving the Democratic party, when it takes within a six-month William Eustis Russell, the flower of New England Democracy, and Charles Frederick Crisp, the flower of Southern Democracy. Differ as Democrats may on questions of financial policy, true Democrats are not likely to dissent from any words of praise that may be bestowed on men like these, in honoring whom the Democratic party honored itself. It will be long before his fellow-Democrats forget the sacrifice Judge Crisp made of the United States senatorship in 1894, because he felt that his party needed him in the Lower House. The honor he then waved aside sudden and untimely death has taken from him within a few hours of its unanimous conferment. The succession must indeed be worthily bestowed to make good the loss to Democracy.

* This department, together with the book "The Growth of the French Nation," constitutes a special C. L. S. C. course, for the reading of which a seal is given.

THE CZAR AND CZARINA'S TOUR IN EUROPE.



NICHOLAS II.
Czar of Russia.

the Scotland Yard authorities, on September 12, of a dynamite plot to destroy the crowned heads of Russia and England when they should be assembled at Balmoral Castle, Scotland. The party embarked on September 20 for Leith, Scotland, en route for Balmoral, and the visit on British soil passed in safety from September 22 to October 3. On October 5 the Russians arrived in Cherbourg, France, and proceeded to Paris amid continual ovations. On October 9 they left France for Darmstadt, Germany. Here they remained till November 8, and then returned directly home. The entire journey was a triumphal march, during whose course the visitors received homage from the world's greatest rulers and statesmen, but in joyful demonstrations of welcome France outdid all other nations. It is the first time the republic of France has been honored with an official visit from any European monarch. The czar was noncommittal in his speeches to all the nations except France, and he permitted the announcement of an alliance of that nation with Russia.

San Francisco Chronicle. (Cal.)

It is now admitted by correspondents in closest touch with authority that the czar's visit to the queen, however pleasing as a courtesy, was thoroughly unsatisfactory as a political event.

The Denver Republican. (Col.)

Probably no other man in the world could have caused more anxiety than he did among the sovereigns he visited. France seems to have extracted the most comfort from his visit and Germany the least.

The New York Herald. (N. Y.)

The splendor of the reception given to the czar by France is perfectly justified by diplomatic history and the great good sense of the French people. The French Republic of to-day has every reason to be proud of this friendship with the czar, and the czar's visit to Paris shows that the great imperial ruler appreciates France's strong alliance at its full and vast value.

THE greatest political importance is attached to the journey through Europe made this fall by the czar and czarina of Russia. Their Majesties were accompanied by Prince Lobanoff-Rostovsky, Russian minister of foreign affairs; General Count Vorontzoff-Dashkoff, chief of the ministry of the imperial house and imperial domains; Princess Galatin, and a full suite of aide-de-camp and court attendants. Leaving the palace at Peterhof, Russia, on August 25, they visited Emperor Francis Joseph and Empress Elizabeth of Austria at Vienna August 27-28. Here universal comment was excited by the conference of Russia's foreign minister with the Austrian emperor and minister of foreign affairs, the conference being prolonged after the departure of the czar and czarina from Vienna to Kief, Prussia. On August 30 Prince Lobanoff suddenly died. From Kief the Russians went to Breslau, Germany, where they were the guests of the kaiser September 5-7. Copenhagen, Denmark, occupied the party September 8-20. It was during the sojourn here that all Europe was excited over the exposure by



ALEXANDRA FEODOROVNA.
Czarina of Russia.

Boston Journal. (Mass.)

Those extraordinary precautions which were adopted to assure the personal safety of the czar on his visit to Queen Victoria at Balmoral took all the joyousness out of the holiday. It was a silent but impressive argument against the whole idea of emperors and kings and princes. The total disappearance of such medieval rubbish cannot be far off when such scenes are possible even in docile, easy-going Britain.

The Rhode Island Country Journal. (Providence.)

It is pointed out that this is the first time that any European sovereign has ever made an official visit to the French Republic. Does this not mean that France has taken her recognized place among the nations as a stable government? Is it not proof of a universal conviction that the French Democracy has come to stay? In the implied compliment every republican country in the world may reasonably take satisfaction.

The Times-Democrat. (New Orleans, La.)

No one can blame the czar, who is for Russia, if he utilizes France for the isolation of Great Britain—his more redoubtable enemy. The only wonder is that such a use of France has become possible.

Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

The czar's visit means a great deal, and the French people cannot be too enthusiastic in their

reception of him. It means a great accession of strength, an elevation from the position of a defeated, isolated nation to that of an ally of one most powerful, a resumption of the ascendancy which France lost at Sedan. More than this, it means to a Frenchman revenge on Germany, the regaining of Alsace and Lorraine, and, very probably, "getting even" with England for her work in Egypt.

PRINCETON'S SESQUI-CENTENNIAL.

FOR three days, October 20–22, Princeton, N. J., was the center of collegiate interest, the occasion being the celebration of the one hundred fiftieth anniversary of the College of New Jersey. Delegates from other American and foreign institutions of learning were in attendance as well as hundreds of Princeton's alumni. On alumni day Governor Griggs of New Jersey, nominal president of the board of trustees, presided at the morning session, Rev. Dr. Henry VanDyke of New York read the anniversary poem, entitled "The Builders," and Prof. Woodrow Wilson of Princeton delivered the anniversary oration on "Princeton in the Nation's Service." President Cleveland was present to review the great parade in the evening, and delivered an address on the closing day of the celebration. At this session President Patton announced that the institution which has heretofore been known as the College of New Jersey shall henceforth be called Princeton University.

The Philadelphia Inquirer. (Pa.)

While Princeton cannot be said to be a scientific university, turning the attention of its students to the marvels of the spectroscope and the composition of suns and systems, it has devoted itself to the study of the development of humanity, to the influences which have helped the spread of civilization, to "the glory that was Greece and the grandeur that was Rome," and from thence to the molding of laws that have dispelled the fogs of error and lifted mankind to a height from which neither king nor parliament can dislodge it. The men to whom such an institution teaches the duties of educated citizenship can always be depended upon to be in the vanguard of that great army which is battling for human rights and liberties.

Baltimore American. (Md.)

Princeton amply deserved the honor of the presence of the president of the United States, for she has contributed to the country thousands of its best and most eminent men, and her teachings have ever been in the direction of plain honesty,

sound morality, and patriotic citizenship. President Cleveland took his text from this fact, and while he made no reference to politics, he skated all around the issues of the day in a manner that is as unmistakable in print as it must have been in speech.

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

It is true that, like most of its American competitors, Princeton scarcely satisfies the definition of a *universitas*, as the word is now used in Germany or in England. It is not an examining and degree-conferring body, ministering to more than a score of affiliated colleges, like Oxford and Cambridge; and it lacks some of the faculties or departments of study and research included in the all-embracing scheme presented at Berlin. . . . But in respect to the number of branches of learning and the provinces of science to which Princeton gives access and guidance it deserves the name of university as truly as does Trinity College, Dublin; and in respect to the range of country from which its undergraduates come it is more widely serviceable than the Irish institution.

LI HUNG CHANG'S NEW HONOR.

IT is a matter of importance that Li Hung Chang's return home to China from his recent tour around the world has been followed by his return to power. Advices of October 26 from Peking, China, announce his appointment as Chinese minister of foreign affairs. Heretofore China's ministry of foreign affairs, called the Tsung-li-Yamen, has consisted of a board of several members, of whom the chief in authority was the president. Upon the emperor's approval of Li Hung Chang's liberal policies adopted from western nations, the president of the Tsung-li-Yamen, Prince Ching, who is opposed to any innovations in the ministry, tendered his resignation. A dispatch of October 29 from Berlin says that the Tsung-li-Yamen will be remodeled on the European plan, and that for the furtherance of his new duties Li Hung Chang has been ordered to change his residence from Tien-Tsin to Peking.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

The Grand Old Man of China has returned home in triumph. In his unique progress around



LI HUNG CHANG.

the world he received such attention as few men of any rank have enjoyed. He now receives the highest honor and is invested with the greatest power any man in China can have, apart, of course, from the emperor. He used to say, half bitterly, half pathetically, that with all his power he was not a minister, but might be dismissed from every place he occupied at any moment by a single ministerial word. That complaint can be made no longer. He has become not only a minister, but the greatest of all ministers, filling a place hitherto reserved for

a near kinsman of the emperor himself. He has reached the zenith of his career, from which, it is earnestly to be hoped, he will not for many a year go to his setting.

The Rhode Island Country Journal. (Providence.)

The appointment of Li Hung Chang as foreign minister of China could hardly be a surprise, for there is no man in the Celestial Empire who has such a broad knowledge of the outside world as he. But if the appointment is a fitting one it is not one which necessarily implies that the aged statesman will be able to put into effect reforms which he may consider necessary for China's welfare.

Harrisburg Telegram. (Pa.)

In his new position Li Hung Chang can bring to bear all the knowledge he accumulated during his tour around the world, and if he shall do half that is expected of him then has China fallen upon better days. We may look for more railroads and telegraph and telephone lines in China now, and the introduction generally of the electric systems that have pushed other nations so far to the front.

The Denver Republican. (Col.)

It would be almost impossible to accomplish such a reform, if it is meant that Chinese diplomatic methods would be made to conform to those of Europe. . . . What the western world is more interested in is the construction of railroads and the introduction of machinery for manufacturing.

ALLEGED DYNAMITERS RELEASED.

GREAT Britain's avenging hand was held back from the alleged dynamiter J. Patrick J. Tynan by the action of the French government. Tynan is one of the four men arrested on September 12 by British authorities for implication in the dynamite plot to destroy the crowned heads of Russia and Great Britain. His arrest occurred at Boulogne-sur-Mer, France, and he was there held in custody. On September 19 the English government demanded his extradition on the ground that he was the organizer, or "No. 1," of the Irish Invincibles, an organization that is accused of causing the murders of Mr. Burke and Lord Frederick Cavendish in Phoenix Park, Dublin, in 1882. A French cabinet council led by the minister of justice, M. Darlin, on October 13 took action refusing the extradition of Tynan on the grounds of insufficient evidence to prove his identity with "No. 1" or to prove that he was connected with the Phoenix Park murders. Moreover the council concurred in M. Darlin's assertion that even if these charges had been substantiated the case is covered by prescription. On October 15 the prisoner was released. He started for Paris the next morning and October 18 sailed from Cherbourg, France, for New York. Tynan is an Irishman by birth and a naturalized American citizen. Messrs. John F. Kearney and Thomas Haines, whose arrest occurred at Rotterdam, Holland, simultaneously with that of Tynan were released and expelled from Holland on October 3, arriving in New York on October 16. The charges against the other suspected man, Edward Bell, who was arrested at Glasgow, Scotland, are dwindling to insignificance.

The New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

The whole affair has, as the reporters say, "fizzled out." Tynan has been discharged in France. The persons to be sought out and punished now are those who humbugged the British press and public. The great lesson of the affair is that serious conspirators do not blab in barrooms about their designs.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

Now the play is ended, and Americans are vindicated.

The British government has failed to prove to the French government that Tynan is a dynamiter, or was "No. 1," or is anything more than a tap-room "patriot," "full of strange oaths," and growing fuller of them as the adjacent bottles grow emptier. Such is the man England went into hysterics over, and wanted America to go into hysterics over. Does she not now wish she had the repose and discrimination of her "kin beyond the sea?" Or

does she realize, and is she ready to confess, that it was all a "put up job"?

The Boston Advertiser. (Mass.)

The refusal of the French government to extradite the alleged dynamiter Tynan did not come as a surprise. When it was learned that the testimony produced by the British detectives regarding the reported dynamite conspiracy was so weak, it was

almost taken for granted that the French government would decline to give Tynan up to the British authorities.

The Philadelphia Inquirer. (Pa.)

Whatever exaggeration there may be in the statements of the London police it is evident that a plot was on foot involving the destruction of property, if not of human life.

SPANISH WARS.

SPAIN'S colonial wars continue to drain her resources of men and money. In the Philippine Islands General Blanco, in command of the Spanish forces, took the field in person on October 11. According to Spanish official advices of October 15, he met with a crushing defeat at Talisay, about thirty miles south of Manila. Then came the news, on October 28, that the revolt had spread to the Sulu Islands. According to an eastern dispatch of October 29 two Japanese steamers secretly brought more than 43,000 stands of arms to the rebels. The Spaniards claim numerous victories. According to oriental reports they are hemmed in at Manila and the fort near Cavite is held by 1,200 insurgents with provisions for two years. The struggle here is accompanied with more revolting savagery than in Cuba, for the eastern natives retaliate in kind upon the Spaniards. Several times advices from Havana have reported that the Spaniards have driven Maceo from his posts; these posts prove not to have been his stronghold in the hills. Spanish official reports admit defeats on October 4 and 5 at Cascorro, east Cuba, by the insurgents, who had besieged the place for thirteen days. At Guamo, near Pinar del Rio City, on October 4, the Spaniards in five columns attacked a detachment of insurgents sent by Maceo from Loma Blanco to convoy to the hills an expedition landed near Dimas. The Spaniards were repulsed in several fierce engagements and the expedition, fitted out in France and said to be the largest ever sent to Cuba, reached its destination without the loss of a single pack mule. Lighter battles have occurred in which the Spaniards claim victory. The American consul-general, Fitz-Hugh Lee, left Havana on November 1, bound for New York.

The Mail and Express. (New York, N. Y.)

All accounts agree that the helpless inhabitants of the Philippine Islands are rapidly being Weylerized by Spain's most relentless methods. It is the same old story of a tax-burdened race revolting against tyranny and misrule only to fall victims to Spanish massacre.

The Denver Republican. (Col.)

It looks very bad for the Spaniards in Cuba. They are apparently unable to make any headway against the insurgents. This cannot continue much longer without convincing the creditors of Spain that the war should cease and the independence of Cuba be acknowledged.

The Times-Union. (Jacksonville, Fla.)

Something should be done to end the war in Cuba. It is being conducted in a barbarous manner, and it may drag on for months, if not years.

The Rhode Island Country Journal. (Providence.)

If the Cubans carry on a dynamite campaign this winter they will stir consternation in the ranks of the enemy. Apparently they can destroy with little exertion any town they are able to approach, and if the Spanish attempt a similar dynamite campaign they will find only scattered bands of rebels and unimportant encampments against which to direct their fire.

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

While it is quite credible that General Lee desires a short rest from official duties there is good reason to surmise that there is something else in his visit. Mr. Cleveland will soon have Congress on his hands, and one of the points on which he must address that body in his annual message is the present status of the revolution in Cuba.

Dagblad. (The Hague, Holland.)

Let not the Dutch government consider the trouble in the Philippines as concerning Spain alone, but let it take this opportunity to strengthen its army and navy in the Indies. Perhaps it may be desirable for us to associate ourselves with other nations in a movement against Japan in order to assure the security of our colonies, and we must be armed in view of such an eventuality.

La Correspondencia Militar. (Madrid, Spain.)

What General Weyler has not been able to do in one year, even with the vast resources at his disposal, he will surely accomplish with the 40,000 men who have just been sent to him. This the country and the government expect from him. He has the government's entire confidence. No difficulty will be placed in his way. But should circumstances require it he will be recalled from Cuba, as was the case with Gen. Martinez Campos.

ITALY'S ROYAL WEDDING.



CROWN PRINCE VICTOR EMMANUEL, OF ITALY.

minister and minister of foreign affairs, in his capacity as crown notary officiating. There were present the king and queen of Italy, visiting members of the bride's family, the presidents of the Senate and Chamber of Deputies, the ministry, and other notables. The religious rites followed at eleven o'clock in the church of Santa Maria deli Angeli, whither the wedding party and guests were conveyed in state carriages. In honor of the occasion all Rome was resplendent in gala attire and especially the streets from the Quirinal to the church. Military bands stationed at intervals along the route made music and the throngs of people cheered incessantly as the procession passed.

The Tribune. (Minneapolis, Minn.)

The marriage is a very popular one with all classes in Italy.

The Boston Journal. (Mass.)

The prince of Naples has been a long time choosing his bride, and he has chosen her oddly. The union of the dynasties of Italy and Montenegro is not immensely powerful unless it is borne in mind how closely Nicholas, czar of all the Russias, is concerned in the match.

The Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

Montenegro is a Russian dependence, and this matrimonial alliance will have a tendency to detach Italy from Germany and bind her to Russia, which would be a great shifting of that delicately adjusted relation, the balance of power in Europe.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

At the risk of seeming ungracious, it must be confessed that the marriage of the crown prince of Italy is an occasion for hope rather than for assured and triumphant exultation. Everybody wishes the young man well, and at least all who desire the perpetuation of the Italian Kingdom look to this match for a strengthening and firmer establishing of the dynasty of Savoy. Perhaps such will be the result, though to secure it something more will be required

than merely providing a succession of heirs to the throne. The house of Savoy does not greatly command the affection of the Italian people, outside of its old Sardinian realm. It must justify its right to reign and must win and retain its hold upon the popular heart by giving the nation good government. To what extent the present crown prince, who will be the third Italian king of his line, will do that is in the future to be seen. Certainly his father is not doing it with notable success.



PRINCESS HÉLÈNE, OF MONTENEGRO.

The Rhode Island Country Journal. (Providence.)

Apparently it does not lie between Great Britain, France, and Russia to dispose of Constantinople, at least not at the present time. The Triple Alliance is to come into the contest, and first of all Austria-Hungary. Italy, still depending for its very life on the influence and protection of Germany and Austria, may aid its own dynastic future by obtaining a hold on [Montenegro in] the Balkan peninsula.

Zukunft. (Berlin, Germany.)

The Dreibund is now only an external semblance of an alliance. Germany cannot reckon upon her allies, as she knows full well that Russia may at any moment give her assent to the scheme of an enemy (France) frantic for revenge.

THE GENERAL ELECTIONS IN THE UNITED STATES.



WILLIAM MCKINLEY.
President Elect of the United States.

A VICTORY for Republicanism and sound money by an overwhelming majority of both the popular and electoral votes is the result of the presidential election held November 3. The chief issue of the campaign was sound money, though tariff was second in consideration. These two principles embodied in the Republican platform and represented by the Republican presidential candidates, McKinley and Hobart, were supported not only by the united Republican party but by a large faction of the Democratic party not in favor of the platform adopted by the Democratic National Convention at Chicago and indirectly by Sound Money Democrats who voted for the presidential nominees of the Gold Democratic National Convention at Indianapolis. It was these forces working for McKinley and Hobart that defeated the Democratic candidates Bryan and Sewall.

Of the total number of electoral votes, 447, there were 272 cast for McKinley, 224 being the number necessary for his election. He carried the 23 states: California, Connecticut, Delaware, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kentucky, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, New Hampshire, New

Jersey, New York, North Dakota, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Vermont, West Virginia, and Wisconsin. The remaining 22 states cast their votes for Bryan, not one of the other presidential candidates in the field carrying a single state. The capture by the Republicans of Delaware, Maryland, Kentucky, and West Virginia, with 29 of their 30 electoral votes, marks the breaking up of the "solid South" coalition which for a score of years has controlled 159 electoral votes, it being the first time that a southern or border state has been carried for a Republican presidential candidate since 1876, when the votes of Florida, Louisiana, and South Carolina were set down in favor of R. B. Hayes. The net Republican gain over 1888 and 1892 in the whole group of Southern States is more than 350,000. North of this group the 18 states included in the region between the North Atlantic coast on the east, the Potomac and Ohio Rivers on the south, and the Missouri River on the west, went in a solid body overwhelmingly Republican. Of these states those of New Jersey, which since the Civil War never before has failed to give her votes to a Democratic presidential candidate, Connecticut, Delaware, Illinois, Indiana, New York, Maryland, Wisconsin, Kentucky, and West Virginia have all been wrested from the Democrats, whose ticket they voted in 1892. In Connecticut, which usually goes Democratic, the Republicans secured the largest majority ever given by that state to any national ticket. The result of the election in Iowa shows the largest vote ever cast there, as well as the largest Republican majority ever secured in the state. There have been large Republican gains, in short, in every state in the Union except Kansas, Washington, Colorado, Nevada, Wyoming, Idaho, and Utah.



GARRET A. HOBART.
Vice President Elect of the United States.

The congressional returns make sure that for the Fifty-fifth Congress the Republicans will have a good working majority in the House of Representatives, and while in the Senate the result is very close yet from the general complexion of the state elections it is not improbable that the Republicans will be able to control the Senate, at least with the vote of the vice president. It is thought that the Republicans will be 44 strong in the Senate, which brings their number up to within 1 of half the membership of that body; that the Silver Democrats will be 30 strong, Sound Money Democrats 4, Populists 7, and Silver men 5. The Republicans will gain senators in the next Congress from Maryland, Ohio, Illinois, Indiana, New York, and Wisconsin. In the House of Representatives the Republicans will have a plurality of 82 members and a majority of 65 over both Democrats and Populists. The Republican representatives will number 211, the Democratic 129, and the Populist and Silver men 17. There continues to be only one Democratic congressman from New England; namely, the one from Massachusetts.

THE ELECTORAL VOTE.

States voting for McKinley.	States voting for Bryan.
<i>Electoral vote.</i>	<i>Electoral vote.</i>
California..... 9	Alabama..... 11
Connecticut..... 6	Arkansas..... 8
Delaware..... 3	Colorado..... 4
Illinois..... 24	Florida..... 4
Indiana..... 15	Georgia..... 13
Iowa..... 13	Idaho..... 3
Kentucky..... 12	Kansas..... 10
Maine..... 6	Kentucky..... 1
Maryland..... 8	Louisiana..... 8
Massachusetts..... 15	Mississippi..... 9
Michigan..... 14	Missouri..... 17
Minnesota..... 9	Montana..... 3
New Hampshire..... 4	Nebraska..... 8
New Jersey..... 10	Nevada..... 3
New York..... 36	North Carolina..... 11
North Dakota..... 3	South Carolina..... 9
Ohio..... 23	South Dakota..... 4
Oregon..... 4	Tennessee..... 12
Pennsylvania..... 32	Texas..... 15
Rhode Island..... 4	Utah..... 3
Vermont..... 4	Virginia..... 12
West Virginia..... 6	Washington..... 4
Wisconsin..... 12	Wyoming..... 3
Total..... 272	Total..... 175

RECAPITULATION.

McKinley.....	272
Bryan.....	175
Total.....	447
Necessary to choice.....	224

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

McKinley has far more than enough votes to elect him even if all the possibly doubtful states were given to his opponent. What seems to be state pride gives to Bryan the better prospect in Nebraska, and it is charged that the methods which Jones has so long used to manufacture majorities in Arkansas are being employed to seize Texas; but it makes no difference. Altgeld has no more chance of resurrection than Bryan, and that is less than the chance of Julius Cæsar. The popular plurality for McKinley will be over 1,100,000, and his electoral vote considerably more than enough to elect.

Sentiment has had its day, the most thrilling day New York has seen for more than thirty years, if even the surrender of Lee roused deeper feeling. Americans turn quickly to the practical result, and want to be sure how far the votes of Tuesday will avail to bring better times and prevent recurring outbreaks of the anarchists. There were majorities of 310,000 in Pennsylvania, 266,000 in New York, 125,000 in Illinois, 105,000 in Ohio, 100,000 in

Massachusetts, and 100,000 in Wisconsin, and about as much in Iowa, with something like 77,000 in New Jersey and 25,000 in Maryland—states which have never been on the Republican side in national contests.

The Mail and Express. (New York, N. Y.)

Not since the organization of the government has a president been elected by a popular vote so overwhelming as that which on Tuesday was rolled up for William McKinley, the candidate of the people. Even from the unofficial and incomplete returns now available it is apparent that a popular plurality of over a million of votes for the Republican candidate, and a majority of 1,100,000 over all competitors, will be the measure of the people's approval of William McKinley and of their condemnation of the Chicago platform. Such a tremendous plurality is beyond all precedent.

Three times has a presidential candidate received a majority of the popular vote, and yet failed to secure a majority in the electoral college. These were Jackson in 1824; Tilden in 1876, and Cleveland in 1888. Whenever this has occurred there has been more or less dissatisfaction with the result, and with the electoral methods prescribed by the Constitution. Fortunately there can be no dispute or complaint this year, for McKinley has an overwhelming majority of both the electoral college and of the popular vote. To enable the reader to appreciate the completeness of the victory we append a list of the popular majorities of the candidates since 1824:

<i>Year.</i>	<i>Candidates.</i>	<i>Plurality.</i>
1824—	Jackson over Adams.....	44,804
1828—	Jackson over Adams.....	139,212
1832—	Jackson over Clay.....	157,313
1836—	Van Buren over Harrison.....	27,027
1840—	Harrison over Van Buren.....	145,914
1844—	Polk over Clay.....	38,181
1848—	Taylor over Cass.....	139,555
1852—	Pierce over Scott.....	214,694
1856—	Buchanan over Fremont.....	496,905
1860—	Lincoln over Douglas.....	489,495
1864—	Lincoln over McClellan.....	411,428
1868—	Grant over Seymour.....	309,584
1872—	Grant over Greeley.....	763,007
1876—	Tilden over Hayes.....	252,224
1880—	Garfield over Hancock.....	9,464
1884—	Cleveland over Blaine.....	23,005
1888—	Cleveland over Harrison.....	100,475
1892—	Cleveland over Harrison.....	380,961
1896—	McKinley over Bryan.....	1,100,000

No president since Monroe has ever gone into the White House with such a testimonial of popular approval as that which President McKinley will carry. More truly of him than of any first-term candidate in our history might it be said that he is the people's president.

REPUBLICAN COMMENT.

The Commercial Advertiser. (New York, N. Y.)

Whatever may have been the history of other republics, this union of states, one and indivisible, need fear no foe from within. Twice it has stood the shock of revolution and emerged stronger than ever. Armed effort only shook its foundations into firmer solidity; the subtler explosives of class hatred, cupidity, and discontent have scarcely left a trace of their devilish work on the fabric so grandly founded by the champions of liberty and so heroically wrought by four generations of their posterity. The majorities from nearly every state in the Union, from every one that can make a claim to enlightenment, answer every slander and allay all anxiety.

The San Francisco Call. (Cal.)

The managers of the Democratic national campaign know very well that there is nothing in the cry of coercion which they adopted to inflame the minds and subvert the votes of the laboring people of the land. It is safe to say that not a single authentic instance of coercion or intimidation will be discovered. If workingmen's votes were cast in accordance with their employers' desires it was not because of any coercion, but rather because every employee understood that his own interests and his employer's interests are identical.

The Hartford Courant. (Conn.)

The honest Democrats of the United States did their full share toward securing the election of McKinley. It is no easy thing for earnest party men to vote for the candidate of the party that they have hitherto opposed.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

It is not as if the silver question had been presented to the people of these states for the first time. Records show that at one time the majority of votes from Pennsylvania favored silver coinage, and much later the majority both in Ohio and the other Central Western States. In like manner we have only to go back four years to find very different results following an appeal to the class feeling and prejudice of working people. The position now taken by overwhelming majorities in those states gives a sense of security which has not existed before for many years.

The Indianapolis Journal. (Ind.)

The sudden reappearance of gold gives the lie to the recent statements of Bryanites that there was no gold in the country. It was simply hiding pending the election.

The Times-Herald. (Chicago, Ill.)

Millions of dollars have been waiting for McKinley. The people have declared for him by overwhelming majorities. The restoration of public confidence is complete. The business revival will not be spasmodic; it will be gradual, steady, and permanent.

The Pioneer Press. (St. Paul, Minn.)

The nation is saved from the greatest calamity which ever menaced it since the Rebellion.

The Baltimore American. (Md.)

What the silver craze cost the country in the stoppage of business, in the shutting of factories and cutting off the wages of workingmen, in the results following distrust and lack of confidence no man can estimate. It is certainly millions of dollars. If the quietus has been so effectually put on this financial heresy that it will never lift its head again the people will not be disposed to complain at what its suppression has cost.

The Philadelphia Inquirer. (Pa.)

Free trade defeated itself after a short experience with the Wilson Bill. Free silver is just as dead to-day as is free trade. The agitators ought to be able to understand this. Let us have peace from them.

The Kennebec Journal. (Augusta, Me.)

The outcome of the election has amply demonstrated the wisdom of their course. Bryanism, and all it implies, has been buried beyond all hope of resurrection.

The Inter-Ocean. (Chicago, Ill.)

Confidence in the currency and in the passage of a sufficient revenue bill is restored by the election of McKinley and a Republican Congress, and with restoration of confidence there has come a renewal of activity in all branches of business. The conservative temper of the country now must be aroused to action, lest unhappily a long period of depression be followed by a tempest of speculation.

The Leavenworth Times. (Kan.)

The country is saved from four years of foolish and revolutionary government. It is good news and the country will rejoice.

The Cleveland Leader. (Ohio.)

Popular government stands before the world stronger, higher, safer than ever before. The fetters of doubt and fear are broken. Labor seeks work and capital feels the rush of new life and movement. Money is insured, in quality and quantity alike sufficient. Better times for the people and larger income for the government! All these things are in the majorities that have elected McKinley.

Republican Standard. (Bridgeport, Conn.)

The verdict is made up. It is final and for all time. No tampering with the national credit will be hereafter allowed and no man can gain credit or build up support for himself by striving to array "the classes against the masses."

The St. Louis Globe-Democrat. (Mo.)

The solid South has dropped 'out of politics. For the first time since 1876 the Republican party has carried states in the old slavery region.

SOUND MONEY DEMOCRATIC COMMENT.

The Times. (New York, N. Y.)

For the past thirty years there has been a party of inflation in the United States. Yesterday for the first time the people had a chance to vote yes or no on the question: Will you have money worth less than its face in gold? Their answer, by a heavier vote, a larger number of states, a more overwhelming majority than have ever been known in the history of the republic is, No.

The World. (New York, N. Y.)

The success of repudiation, with the accompanying denial of the sovereign authority of the nation and the proposition to prostitute the Supreme Court, would have destroyed the very essence of the republican idea. This great deliverance is not a party triumph. It is a triumph of morality and patriotism.

The Baltimore Sun. (Md.)

The specious arguments of the advocates of free coinage have failed to mislead the voters of the country. The answer which they have made to these appeals should convince the professional politician and demagogue for the future that honesty is the best policy in dealing with the American people.

The Detroit Free Press. (Mich.)

The forces which represented hostility to principle and to national honor have been completely and hopelessly routed. In the face of such a sweeping defeat the threat they have made of continuing the crusade begun at Chicago against honest money, the supremacy of the law, and the integrity of the Supreme Court loses all its force.

The Buffalo Enquirer. (N. Y.)

A president needs a cabinet of peers, not a coterie of chums or retainers. Let Mr. McKinley select for his advisers eight of the strongest Republicans in his party. If he feels gratitude to any particular Democrat and thinks acknowledgment due, let him send the fortunate friend on a foreign mission, where he can serve with honor, do his duty to the whole country, and in no wise embarrass the administration.

The Times. (Hartford, Conn.)

It is not a party victory; but a great triumph of honest money and honor and justice on the part of our government. Honor to the Sound Money Democrats, the Sound Money Republicans, and the sound money people.

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

The meagerness of the vote for the Indianapolis candidates is no reflection on the honest Democrats whose names were on that ticket. General Palmer himself is twenty times happier to-day than if he had received twenty times as many votes, and had thereby achieved the defeat of McKinley and the election of Bryan.

The St. Paul Globe. (Minn.)

The people have made this victory so overwhelming that no one can miss its significance. They have buried repudiation and mob rule under an avalanche of what promises to be a plurality of not far from a million popular votes.

The Buffalo Courier. (N. Y.)

The patriotic sentiment of the people, upholding the national honor against repudiation, and the business interests of every state and community arrayed against the debasement of the currency were chiefly instrumental in winning the battle.

The Savannah News. (Ga.)

It is not necessary to explain the reasons for their victory. They are apparent to every one. The people don't want silver monometallism, and they refuse to condemn President Cleveland for enforcing the laws of the United States, as he did at the time of the Chicago riot in 1894. They condemn Altgeld and uphold Cleveland. We look upon free silver coinage as a dead issue. It will never be resurrected. It is laid in its grave along with the greenback issue.

The Courier-Journal. (Louisville, Ky.)

Our constitutional Democracy stands forth stancher and stabler than ever before. Freed of the menace of fiatism, Populism, and anarchism, there is nothing now to dim our horizon or further obstruct our onward march. Party divisions we shall have and party contentions—Democracy and Republicanism—but Populism is powerless, and when the Republican party shall have run its course the Democratic party will be ready to take command—the Democratic party of Jefferson, of Jackson, of Cleveland, and of Palmer—reorganized and re-vivified, immutable and immortal.

The Des Moines Leader. (Ia.)

The political conspiracy hatched in the United States Senate at conferences at which the Republican silver senators were the most assiduous attendants, and which resulted in the selling out of Democratic principles for a supposed mess of Populist pottage, has been rebuked, as it deserved to be rebuked. It means that the vicious proposal for the cheapening of the people's money for the benefit of a favored interest and to the detriment of all others is dead for this generation.

The Times-Union. (Jacksonville, Fla.)

The result means that independent free coinage will not be tried soon. The Republicans are pledged to bimetallism if it can be brought about by international agreement. If they are wise they will make every effort to secure an international agreement, and by so doing retire this disturbing question from the political arena. McKinley is an extreme protectionist, but his election does not mean an increase of the tariff.

FREE SILVER COMMENT.

(Dem.) *The Journal.* (New York, N. Y.)

The gold standard will have four years more in which to show how it operates in practice. If it produces the same fruits between now and 1900 that it has yielded hitherto there will be an irresistible uprising against it. The duty of all good citizens now is to acquiesce loyally and quickly in Major McKinley's election, forget the rancors and excitements of politics as soon as possible—parting with no convictions, but remembering that there is a time for all things—and settle down to business.

(Dem.) *The Kansas City Times.* (Mo.)

The workingmen need nobody to tell them that many employers tried by every means in their power to coerce them. The complaints of coercion come not from the Democratic managers, but from the workingmen themselves.

(Dem.) *The Wheeling Register.* (W. Va.)

Attempts to coerce labor have been made, and will continue to be made; but there will be no attempt to coerce the farmer. He can't be coerced, because he is his own employer. Therefore let the farmer help out his bulldozed brother in the city.

(Dem.) *The Chicago Dispatch.* (Ill.)

Coercion in all its many forms has made life a burden to the employees of the great corporations, and every day new names are added to the list of workingmen who have been discharged or reduced in position because they have espoused the cause of free silver.

(Dem.) *The Argus.* (Albany, N. Y.)

It is a matter of Democratic gratification that the Georgia Democracy has so signally vindicated its ability to hold its own against all odds and all comers.

(Rep.) *The Denver Republican.* (Col.)

There should be no sectional feeling. The country suffered terribly from that once, and the public had a right to expect that metropolitan papers like those of the large cities would be the last to stir up such a sentiment. Through ignorance and malice, however, it has been otherwise, and to the press of the East the blame attaches.

(Ind.) *The Times-Democrat.* (New Orleans, La.)

We are all sick and tired of the depression that has prevailed so long and which made itself felt in every part of the country and in every line of business. Contracts of all kinds have been held back until after the election, as it was felt that the result might affect prices.

(Dem.) *The Cincinnati Enquirer.* (Ohio.)

The goldites, the McKinleyites and all the fractions of other political organizations may as well understand that one defeat or one hundred defeats by the machinations and money of bankers, bondholders, and money lenders will not moderate the zeal or lessen the determination of the friends of the double standard to stand by the money of the Constitution, whatever other nations may do.

(Ind.) *The Penny Press.* (Minneapolis, Minn.)

As the smoke of the recent battle clears away it will be more and more apparent how foolish was the scare by which the election has been carried.

(Dem.) *The Atlanta Constitution.* (Ga.)

The Democrats will, of course, accept the result in good faith. Fortunately they have made no threats intimating their purpose not to abide by the decision if not favorable to their candidate. This was reserved for the other side. The Republicans have come into power on the pledge that their success would guarantee a return to prosperity. This being the pledge on which they won, it is to be hoped that it will materialize.

(Dem.) *The Commercial Appeal.* (Memphis, Tenn.)

The Democratic party is in a slightly disfigured condition. It may or may not have been the victim of unwise counsels; the future alone can tell. There is, however, no use in bandying accusations against each other. The Democracy is not dead because its mission is not ended; and the rights of the people will always stand in need of a defender as long as the Republican party exists. Just why that splendid type of Americanism William J. Bryan was overwhelmingly rejected by the American people in favor of William McKinley cannot be readily explained.

EX-SENATOR THOMAS W. FERRY.

On October 14 at Grand Haven, Mich., apoplexy caused the death of a man whose more than national reputation has faded into obscurity since his retirement from politics twelve years ago—ex-Senator Ferry of Michigan. Thomas White Ferry was born in Mackinac, Mich., on June 1, 1827. Equipped with a common school education, he gained success in business and in 1850 was sent to the Michigan State Legislature on the Republican ticket. His activity extended over both branches of the state legislature until 1856, when he was elected by the Republicans to represent his district in Congress. From here he was sent to the United States Senate in 1871. He was one of the special committee of the Senate to frame the Resumption Act of January 14, 1875. That same year he was made president *pro tempore* of the Senate. On the death of Mr. Henry Wilson Mr. Ferry became acting vice president of the United States, which office he held until March 7, 1877. He will be remembered in this capacity as delivering

the address and presiding, in President Grant's absence, at the Centennial Exposition of Philadelphia on July 4, 1876; also as presiding at the impeachment trial of Secretary Belknap and at the sixteen joint meetings of Congress during the electoral count of 1876-77. He was returned to the Senate in 1877, but on running again in 1883 was defeated in a close contest. This was the end of his political career. Business failure reduced him from great wealth to comparative poverty. He went abroad for several years and returning home spent the rest of his days in retirement.

The St. Louis Globe Democrat. (Mo.)

The death of ex-Senator Ferry of Michigan serves to emphasize the fact that of all forms of reputation the least substantial and satisfactory is that which men win in politics. It is only in exceptional instances that it is otherwise. He was chosen president *pro tem.* of the Senate, and became acting vice president on the death of Henry Wilson.

The country looked upon him as a coming man, a presidential probability, and he had every reason to believe that he and fortune were secure friends. But in 1883 he was beaten in his third race for the Senate; then he failed in business and went abroad, broken down by his disasters, and when he returned after several years he passed into obscurity and forgetfulness.

THE TURKISH DILEMMA.

THE sultan has at last added some show of action to his promises of reform. Massacres and desolation prevailed through the empire well into October. On October 16 the Turkish government agreed to allow the peaceful departure from the empire of Armenian women and children to join their husbands and fathers in the United States. Moreover, according to news of October 19, the Porte entered into a treaty with the United States granting to Armenians who have become naturalized citizens of the United States the full protection enjoyed by all other visitors to the Turkish Empire provided with passports from the State Department. Advices of October 25 state that the powers, fearful of more massacres, warned the Porte to withdraw its imperial irade fixing on 12,000,000 subjects a levy to be used in arming the Moslem populace. The Porte denied that the irade contained anything other than an appeal to Turkish subjects for voluntary contributions to pay the expenses of the imperial troops. This excuse for refusing to withdraw the irade has alarmed the powers. A debate on the Turkish question occurred on November 3 in the French Chamber of Deputies, when M. Hanotaux, French minister of foreign affairs, said the czar of Russia upheld France in admonishing Turkey. The debate was followed immediately by the Porte's enforcement of some promised reforms.

The Atlanta Constitution. (Ga.)

More Christians have been murdered by the Turks during the last ten months than all the missionaries of Christendom have been able to convert during the past ten years; but what of it? What are the lives of the Christians, the virtue of Christian women, compared with the "vested rights" of British bondholders in Turkish and Egyptian bonds?

The Boston Journal. (Mass.)

The reply which M. Hanotaux, the French minister of foreign affairs, made in the Chamber of Deputies to an interpellation regarding the Armenian massacres conveys a message of hope. It is couched in guarded and diplomatic language, but if it means anything at all it cannot mean less than that France and Russia have reached some understanding upon the Turkish question which looks to imposing a check upon Turkish ferocity.

The Evening Post. (New York, N. Y.)

He has several treaties with all the European powers, providing for reforms, and he has plenty of fun in not observing them. A few with us would increase the mirth of the occasion.

The Philadelphia Record. (Pa.)

The American squadron at Smyrna may not have been without influence as a discourager of hesitancy on the part of the Turks. A show of teeth is the best argument with these barbarians.

The Boston Traveler. (Mass.)

It is very evident that the sultan has arrived at that condition of mind which persuades him that discretion is the better part of valor, and that it is wise that he seek to propitiate the world, and especially the United States.

The Denver Republican. (Col.)

The growing influence of Russia and the isolation of England seem to indicate that Russia may soon gain such ascendancy in the affairs of Turkey that it will be able to dictate the policy of that country, regardless of the wishes of the English government.

The Philadelphia Inquirer. (Pa.)

M. Pobiedonostzeff, procureur-general of the Holy Synod of Russia, is authority for the statement that there could be no real alliance between that country and France, and that there are merely friendly relations between the two nations.

M. CHALLEMEL-LACOUR.

THE noted French politician, writer, and orator M. ChallemeL-Lacour died in Paris on October 26. Born in Avranches, France, in 1827 he received his schooling at the *lycée* of Saint Louis in Paris and at the École Normale, taking highest rank upon his graduation from the latter place in 1849. In the same year he became professor of philosophy in the *lycée* of Pau and in 1851 in the *lycée* of Limoges. After the *coup d'état* of Napoleon III. in 1851 M. ChallemeL-Lacour was imprisoned in Paris for several months and then banished from France. As a lecturer in Belgium and Switzerland he won marked success, and in 1856 he was made professor of French literature in Zurich, Switzerland. Returning to his native country after the amnesty in 1859 he contributed articles on literature, art, and philosophy to the leading publications. Later he established the *Revue Politique*. He was appointed prefect of the Rhone in 1870 but resigned the following year because unable to cope with the communists in Lyons. In 1872 as a Radical representative from the Bouches-du-Rhône he entered the Chamber of Deputies and here gained popularity for his oratory. He was elected senator in 1876 and in 1879 was appointed ambassador to Switzerland. The next year he was sent to succeed M. Leon Say as ambassador at London. After two years' service at London he resigned to enter Jules Ferry's cabinet as minister of foreign affairs. In 1893 he was elected a member of the French Academy. A nervous brusqueness of manner limited his success as a diplomat but his ability was highly esteemed and after the death of Jules Ferry he was made president of the cabinet. Several months ago failing health obliged him to resign this office.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

The death of M. ChallemeL-Lacour makes the French Republic less rich, but not, we may confidently believe, less stable. He was a man of pure patriotism, fine scholarship, and austere virtues. His career was a long one, and that portion of it devoted to the service of the state would have been longer had he not nobly refused to bow the knee to the tawdry tyranny of Louis Napoleon. As it was, he served the republic faithfully from its founda-

tion to the end of his life. In the last few years his services were of the very highest order. It was his unflinching hand perhaps more than any other which held France true to herself in the last presidential crisis. It was he who more than any other resisted, and successfully resisted, the recent Radical attempts to . . . put France under the unbridled tyranny of a new revolutionary convention. For these things alone, apart from all else, he is worthy of grateful and lasting remembrance.

DISRUPTION IN THE LIBERAL PARTY.

THE leadership of the Liberal party is still an unsettled matter. Sir William Harcourt was generally considered the only possible leader for the Liberals until Lord Rosebery made his speech of October 9 on the Turkish question, regarded by many as the greatest speech of his life. English newspapers of October 13 announced that Sir William Harcourt had resigned the leadership of the Liberal party and had expressed the intention of withdrawing entirely from Parliament. Sir William Harcourt denied having taken any such action. An organized effort is being made to prevail upon Mr. Gladstone to reenter politics. It is said the Liberal party cannot be reorganized until after Parliament opens again.

The Providence Journal. (R. I.)

It seems to us that he [Lord Rosebery] has a genuine grievance against Mr. Gladstone, whose views, as he says, differ from his own, whose voice is still to the majority the voice of the real leader. It is not the first time that Mr. Gladstone, though out of politics, has made it practically impossible for others to take his place. He played the same trick on Lord Hartington.

The Daily News. (London, England.)

Lord Rosebery has allowed himself to be maneuvered out of the leadership. Before he can be asked to resume the position he must be accorded a vote of confidence by his colleagues and the party. The step taken by his lordship is a very grave and lamentable one.

National Zeitung. (Berlin, Germany.)

The question whether it is best for the people to direct the government or the government to rule the people has still to be solved. Strong men are needed, and Lord Rosebery is not a strong man, although he is a good worker.

The Speaker. (London, England.)

Lord Rosebery, who, we believe, commands the support of the majority of Liberals in his views on the eastern question, might, of course, have fought out the question between himself and Mr. Gladstone while retaining his position. But he felt that in order to gain the right to speak his mind with the necessary freedom he must abandon the leadership. There are few Liberals who will not recognize the dignity and straightforwardness of his action.

The Morning Post. (London, England.)

He has failed chiefly from lack of loyal support, and the Radical party has grave cause to regret his formal severance of his adherence to it.

The Boston Herald. (Mass.)

Under the circumstances, the chances are that Sir William Harcourt will succeed to the leadership of the party, while for the present, at least, Lord Rosebery will become an independent member.

The Times. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

Lord Rosebery's position is peculiarly embarrassing because as long as Mr. Gladstone lives he must continue the real Liberal leader. And just now, having no official responsibility, Gladstone is hot against Turkey, and has helped to set all his followers aflame, while Rosebery clearly understands that the agitation is impracticable and possibly mischievous.

EDWARD WHITE BENSON, ARCHBISHOP OF CANTERBURY.



EDWARD WHITE BENSON.
The Late Archbishop of Canterbury.

A DEATH that sent a wave of sorrow over all England is that of the archbishop of Canterbury, Edward White Benson, D.D., P.C. It occurred suddenly on October 11 at Hawarden, North Wales, where, in company with his wife, he was visiting Mr. Gladstone. Born in 1829 near Birmingham, England, Edward White Benson was educated at Trinity College, Cambridge. He graduated from this institution in 1852, ranking as first class in classical honors, senior chancellor's medalist, and senior optime in the mathematical tripos. He then was assistant master of Rugby School until 1858. From 1858-72 he was head master of Wellington College. In 1859 occurred his marriage with Miss Mary Sidgwick. He rose by degrees to canon residentiary of Lincoln Cathedral, was honorary chaplain to the queen in 1873, and in 1875-77 was chaplain in ordinary. The crown made him bishop of Truro in 1877. In 1864, 1871, 1875, 1876, 1879, and 1882 he was select preacher to the University of Cambridge, and in 1875-76 to Oxford. His scholarly qualities recommended Bishop Benson to Mr. Gladstone for the archbishopric of Canterbury, and in 1882 the crown appointed him archbishop of Canterbury, primate of all England, and metropolitan. Dr. Benson did not locate in Canterbury but in London.

The new archbishop of Canterbury, the Right Reverend Frederick Temple, D.D., is Bishop Benson's senior by eight years. He also has been head master of Rugby School and chaplain to the queen. In 1860 he published the first of the seven "Essays and Reviews" which raised a storm of criticism from the clergy. In 1868 Dr. Temple staunchly supported Mr. Gladstone's measure for the disestablishment of the Irish Church, and by Gladstone's appointment he became bishop of Exeter in 1869. In 1883 he was made Bampton lecturer at Oxford, and in 1885 was appointed bishop of London.

Boston Journal. (Mass.)

Dr. Benson enjoyed a high reputation as a scholar, and the books which he has left, though few, attest the qualities of his mind. He had a broad and catholic taste in scholarship. His exercise of the authority vested in him as head of the established church was marked by a spirit of tolerance. He was a genial, lovable, large hearted man, who drew to himself the affection of those over whom he was placed.



FREDERICK TEMPLE.
The New Archbishop of Canterbury.

The Atlanta Constitution. (Ga.)

Although in respect to years the distinguished prelate [Dr. Temple] has measured the golden span of life he is nevertheless in vigorous health. Dr. Temple is recognized throughout England as a man of profound scholarship and exceptional piety. His contributions to religious literature have been quite frequent, and his views on subjects of theology and church government have been recognized as standard authority.

SUMMARY OF NEWS.

HOME.

October 6. American Board of Commissioners of Foreign Missions meets at Toledo, O.—An appeal for help is issued by the inhabitants of Cedar Keys, Fla., which was desolated by the tidal wave of September 29.

October 7. The United States minister at Peking reports that the Chinese ports of Foochow and Hankchow were opened as treaty ports on September 26.

October 8. Protestants and Catholics hold a public meeting at Washington to express regret at the removal of Bishop Keane from the rectorship of the Catholic University.

October 10. Harvard wins the inter-collegiate tennis cup at New Haven, Conn.

October 11. At a Christian Alliance meeting in Carnegie Hall, New York City, \$12,000 is raised for missions.

October 12. The United States Supreme Court begins its session at Washington, D. C.

October 13. The cabinet convenes for its first formal meeting since June.—In Washington, D. C., the Union Veteran Legion begins its eleventh annual encampment.

October 16. The Army Correspondents' Memorial at Gapland, Md., is dedicated.

October 17. Cardinal Satolli embarks at New York for Genoa, Italy.

October 20. The American Institute of Architects convenes at Nashville, Tenn.

October 21. The corner stone of the hall of history at the American University, Washington, D. C., is laid by Bishop Bowman (Methodist Episcopal).

October 22. The Sheats Law of Florida making it criminal to teach negroes and whites together is declared unconstitutional by Judge Rhydon M. Call of the Supreme Court of Florida.

October 27. The Protestant Episcopal Church in the United States opens its annual missionary council in Cincinnati, O.—The United States secures the coöperation of Japan and Russia in the protection of fur-bearing seals.

October 31. President Cleveland appoints Isaac M. Elliot, of New York, consul at La Guayra, Venezuela, and Horace L. Washington, of Texas, consul at Alexandretta, Syria.

November 4. President Cleveland proclaims November 26 as Thanksgiving Day.

November 6. Many places of business throughout the country are reported to have resumed work as a result of McKinley and Hobart's victory on November 3.

FOREIGN.

October 6. Ruinous prairie fires are reported from Winnipeg, Manitoba.

October 8. Many ships and lives are lost in a gale on the Irish Sea.

October 9. The French ship *Corinte* is plundered off Athucemus by the Riff pirates.

October 12. The German Socialist party begins its annual session in Sieblichen.

October 13. The rebellion in Madagascar is reported to be general throughout the island.

October 17. A treaty is entered into by Nicaragua, Honduras, and Salvador by which they unite to form the leading republic of Central America and agree to send jointly a minister to the United States.

October 23. Dr. Sut Yat Sen, of Hong-Kong, China, who was seized on October 17 and imprisoned in the Chinese legation at London, is released on demand of Lord Salisbury.

October 24. Queen Wilhelmina of Holland is confirmed at The Hague and takes her first communion.

October 28. Along the Labrador coast hundreds of persons are in destitution.

October 31. Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, British secretary of state for the colonies, is elected lord rector of Glasgow University, Scotland.

November 4. Edward John Poynter, R.A., is elected president of the Royal Academy.

November 5. The marriage of the Duc d'Orléans to Archduchess Maria Dorothée Amélie of Austria is celebrated in Vienna.—The government of Hawaii grants a full pardon to ex-Queen Liliuokalani.

NECROLOGY.

October 7. Victor de Lesseps, son of the late Count Ferdinand de Lesseps.—Gen. Louis Jules Trochu, commander of Paris during the siege in the Franco-Prussian War.

October 9. Baron Müller, Australian explorer.

October 23. Captain-General Pavia, Marquis de Navaliches (Spanish).—Columbus Delano, ex-secretary of the United States Interior Department.

C. L. S. C. OUTLINE AND PROGRAMS.

FOR DECEMBER.

OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING.

First Week (ending December 3).

"The Growth of the French Nation." Chapter XII.

"French Traits": "Democracy" to page 263.

IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"The French Character in Politics."

Sunday Reading for November 29.

Second Week (ending December 10).

"The Growth of the French Nation." Chapter XIII.

"French Traits": "Democracy" concluded.

IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"A Century of French Costume."

"A Prejudice against Memory."

Sunday Reading for December 6.

Third Week (ending December 17).

"The Growth of the French Nation." Chapter XIV.

"French Traits": "New York after Paris."

IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"Mazarin."

"The Rise and Fall of New France."

Sunday Reading for December 13.

Fourth Week (ending December 24).

"The Growth of the French Nation." Chapter XV.

IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"The French Revolution."

"Old Greek Social Life."

Sunday Reading for December 20.

FOR JANUARY.

First Week (ending January 7).

"The Growth of the French Nation." Chapter XVI. to page 289.

"A Study of the Sky." Chapter I. and Chapter IV. to "Ursa Minor" on page 61.

IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"Historic Names and Incidents of the French Academy."

Sunday Reading for January 3.

SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLE WORK.

FIRST WEEK.

ST. LOUIS DAY—NOVEMBER 30.

It is good to be just, inasmuch as a reputation for probity and disinterestedness gives a prince more real authority and power than any accession of territories.—*One of St. Louis' Maxims.*

1. Biographical Sketch.—St. Louis.
2. Historical Study.—The crusade in which St. Louis took part.

3. A Talk—The character of military methods of the Middle Ages as illustrated by the conduct of St. Louis and his army in the crusades.
4. Essay—St. Louis and feudalism.
5. Table Talk—The king's court.

SECOND WEEK.

JOAN OF ARC DAY.—DECEMBER 4.

Nothing great was ever achieved without enthusiasm.—*Emerson.*

1. Roll Call—Response to be the name of a favorite heroine of history with the reason for the favoritism.
2. Book Review—"Personal Recollections of Joan of Arc," by Mark Twain.
3. Historical Study—The events of French history immediately preceding the appearance of Joan of Arc.
4. A Talk—The fall of Orleans and the crowning of the king.
5. Essay—The captivity, trial, and execution of Joan of Arc.
6. Conversation—Superstition as an element of success in the deliverance of Orleans.
7. Discussion—Deliverance from oppression the result of self-sacrifice.
8. Discussion—Was the deliverance of France from the English a religious movement?

THIRD WEEK.

1. A Literary Criticism—Lowell's essay on "Democracy."
2. A Character Sketch—Louis XIV.
3. A Study—The wars of Louis XIV. and their effect on the history of France.
4. A Review—America and France in the eighteenth century.
5. Essay—Charlotte Corday.
6. Table Talk—American universities.*

FOURTH WEEK.

1. A Study of Paris—The topography of Paris; the appearance of the city as a whole; the boulevards; the Bois de Boulogne; the Jardin des Plantes; the Louvre; the Tuileries; Notre Dame; the Élysée palace; the Palais-Royal; the Hôtel de Ville; the palace, gallery, and garden of the Luxembourg.
2. Select Readings—The notes dated from the Hôtel de Louvre, January 8, 9, and 10, 1858, in Hawthorne's "French and Italian Note-Books."
3. Biographical Sketches—Voltaire, Montesquieu, and Jean Jacques Rousseau.

* See *Current History and Opinion.*

4. Comparative Historical Study—The causes of the American and the French Revolutions.
5. Questions and Answers on "French Traits."
6. Discussion—The foreign relations of Russia.*

FOR JANUARY.

FIRST WEEK.

RICHELIEU DAY—JANUARY 4.

Artifice is allowed to deceive a rival: we may employ everything against our enemies.—*Richelieu*.

* See *Current History and Opinion*.

1. Character Sketch—Cardinal Richelieu.
2. Essay—The foreign policy of Richelieu.
3. Essay—The Huguenots in France and America.
4. A Talk—Richelieu's attitude toward French colonies.
5. A Discussion—The wisdom of the institution of intendants.
6. Table Talk—Richelieu's attitude toward internal affairs.

C. L. S. C. NOTES AND WORD STUDIES.

ON REQUIRED READING FOR DECEMBER.

"THE GROWTH OF THE FRENCH NATION."

P. 180. "*Croquants*." A French word meaning country-man, fellow; a name given to the peasants who rebelled under Henry IV. and Louis XIII.

P. 183. "*Mayenne*" [mā-ēnn' or mā-yēnn']. A province or department in the northwestern part of France.—"*Mercœur*" [mēr-kēr']. This duchy was south of central France.

P. 188. "*Biron*" [bē-rōn'].

P. 188. "*Ravaillac*" [rā-vā-yāk'].

P. 190. "*Béarn*" [bā-ār']. An ancient province of southwestern France.

P. 192. "*Luynes*" [lū-ēn'].

P. 195. "*Valtelline*" [vāl-tel-lēn']. A region of Lombardy, Italy, which includes the valley of the upper Adda from the Lake of Como to Tyrol on the northeast.

P. 196. The "Huguenot outbreak" early in the ministry of Richelieu occurred in 1625 instead of 1525, and the last Huguenot insurrection began in 1627, not in 1727, as stated on page 24 of the October number of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*. In the same article the date 1742 was inadvertently given for 1642 and 1690 for 1590.

P. 198. "Day of Dupes." "Mary de' Medici had obtained for the cardinal a position in the council in order that he might serve as her instrument. When she saw that the minister thought only of the interests of the state, and did not yield either to her caprices or those of her second son, Gaston, she extorted from the king a promise to degrade him. Richelieu left court. Already the members of court were crowding the ante-chambers of the queen-mother. Saint-Simon, the father of the celebrated historian, remonstrated with the king and sent for Richelieu. The king then said to him, 'Continue to serve me as you have done, and I will sustain you against all those who have sworn to destroy you.' This day was known as the Day of Dupes."—*Victor Duruy's "History of France."*

P. 216. "*Nymwegen*" [nim-wā-gen]. The town of Nymwegen is in the Netherlands.

P. 220. "*Casale*" [kā-zā'le].

P. 223. "The Pyrenees," etc. A remark referring to the union of Spain and France, said to have been made by Louis XIV. when the duke of Anjou was about to ascend the throne of Spain.

P. 223. "*Blenheim*" [blēn'im]. A town in Bavaria.—"*Ramillies*" [rā-mē-yē].—A village of Belgium.—"*Malplaquet*" [māl-plā-kā']. A town of France near the Belgian boundary.

P. 224. "*Camisards*" [kam'i-zārdz]. French Protestants of the Cévennes, so called from the white smock coats, or blouses, worn by them. They fought in defense of civil and religious liberty.

P. 226. "*Assiento*." From the Spanish word *asiento*, meaning contract; a name given to the treaties made by Spain with foreign countries by which her colonies were supplied with negro slaves. Such a contract was first made with the Flemings during the reign of the emperor Charles V., with the Genoese in 1580, with the Portuguese in 1696, with the French in 1701, and with the English in 1713. A few years later England sold or resigned the privilege to Spain, since which no such contract has been made.

P. 239. "*Leczinska*" [le-chin'ska].

P. 240. "*Fleury*" [flē-rē].

P. 243. "*Dupleix*" [dü-plā'].—"La Bourdonnais" [lā boor-do-nā'; *r* signifies that the *r* is to trilled].

P. 246. "*Laly*" [lā lē'].

P. 247. "*Choiseul*" [shwā-zēl'].

P. 247. "*Turgot*" [tūr-gō'].

P. 265. "*Corvées*." A French word meaning, in feudal law, statute-labor; labor for the feudal lord, such as repairing roads, etc., imposed by statute on the peasants.

P. 267. "*Ile de France*" [ēl de frōns']. Isle of France. A former government of France of which Paris was the capital. See the map in the text-book.

P. 270. "*Montesquieu*" [English pronunciation mon-tes-kū'].

"FRENCH TRAITS."

- P. 241. "Moustier" [moo-te-ā].
- P. 243. "Inter arma silent." An adaptation of a quotation from Cicero, "*Silent leges inter arma*"—The laws are silent in time of war.
- P. 246. "Faut-il opter?" etc. Is it necessary to make a choice? I choose to be the people.
- P. 247. "Per se." Latin. In themselves.
- P. 249. "Canaille." Rabble.
- P. 250. "Hôtel de Ville" [ō-tel'de vėl']. The town-hall of Paris. A fine building of the city which replaces the Hôtel de Ville burned by the Communists in 1871. In the various revolutions the Hôtel de Ville has generally been the rallying-place of the Democratic party. The "Palais Bourbon," now the Chamber of Deputies, was begun in 1722 for the dowager Duchess of Bourbon and in 1790 declared national property.
- P. 251. "Le Temps." *The Times*.
- P. 251. "Le Soleil." *The Sun*.—"L'Intransigeant." *The Intransigent*.
- P. 254. "Louis Veuillot" [vē-yō'] (1813-'83) A French writer and editor of the *Paris Univers*.
- P. 257. "Grosso modo." In a gross way, or coarse manner.
- P. 257. "Panem-et-circenses." Bread and the games of the circus. A phrase from a passage in one of Juvenal's satires, in which he says, "Ever since we sold our votes to none the people have thrown aside all anxiety for the public weal. For that sovereign people that once gave away military commands, consulships, legions, everything, now bridles its desires, and anxiously prays only for two things—bread, and the games of the circus."
- P. 257. "Coup d'état." French, meaning literally a stroke of state; a sudden and extraordinary measure taken in state affairs; a reference to the breaking up of the National Assembly by Louis Napoleon in 1851, for an account of which see "The Growth of the French Nation," pages 325 and 326.
- P. 257. "Plébiscites." In French history the expression of the popular will on public matters by the vote of the whole people.
- P. 260. "Laisser faire." Let alone. A term first used in France to denote the principle of political economy which opposed the taxation or restriction of trade and industry by the government except where public peace and order required it.—"Laisser aller." Let go; unrestrained.
- P. 262. "Tourangeau." A native of Touraine, an ancient government of France called on account of its fertility "the garden of France."
- P. 263. "L'année terrible." The terrible year; Victor Hugo in a work called "*L'Année Terrible*" pictures the disasters which befell France from the fall of Sedan in 1870 to the destruction of the Commune in 1871.

P. 268. "Nus sumes," etc., may be rendered literally as follows:

We are men as they are;
Members have we as they have,
And as large bodies we have,
And as much can suffer;
To us is lacking but heart alone.

P. 269. "Declaration des," etc. Declaration of the rights of man. One of the measures adopted by the National Assembly in 1789.—"Cuer." Heart.

P. 270. "Witenagemote" [wit'e-nā-ge-mōt']. From two Anglo-Saxon words, *wita*, a wise man, and *gemōt*, assembly; in Anglo-Saxon history, a council composed of the official national leaders both of the church and state. This council was the supreme court of justice in the kingdom. "It was summoned by the king in any political emergency, and its concurrence was necessary in many important measures, such as the deciding of war, the levying of extraordinary taxes, grants of land in certain cases, and the election (and in many instances the deposition) of kings."

P. 270. "Noblesse." Nobility.

P. 273. "Status quo." A Latin phrase which means literally the state in which; the condition in which things are now.

P. 273. "C'est," etc. Is this then a revolt?—"Liancourt" [lyon-koor].—"Non, Sire," etc. No, sire, it is a revolution.

P. 274. "Permis." Allowable; justifiable.

P. 275. "En permanence." Permanently.

P. 275. "Saturnalian." Having the character of the ancient Roman feast called Saturnalia, celebrated in honor of Saturn, at which time all classes indulged without restraint in feasting and mirthful, noisy revelry.

P. 276. The "Vendôme column" was erected in Paris by Napoleon I., in 1806-10, in memory of his defeat of the Austrians and Russians. The metal which covers the column of masonry, and on which are represented scenes of Napoleon's campaign of 1805, was procured by melting 1,200 cannons captured from the enemy. The column was destroyed in 1871 by the authority of the Commune, but was reërected in 1875.—"Solennel." A French word meaning solemn, in the sense of formal; executed in due form of law.

P. 277. "Bouffe." Buffoon.

P. 279. "Beau rôle." The noble rôle.

P. 279. "Noyades." A French word meaning literally drownings; a name applied to the practice of drowning prisoners, a form of punishment administered during the French Revolution.—"Noyés." The drowned.

P. 282. "Ticino" [tē-chē'nō]. One of the cantons of Switzerland.

P. 286. "Au courant." Literally, in the current; to the present time; up to date.

P. 287. "French Left." In Europe one of the divisions of the legislative assembly which are maintained for purposes of party distinction and classification. The members of this division, usually the Liberals or Democrats, occupy the seats at the left-hand side of the presiding officer.

P. 292. "*Res publica*." Latin. Affairs of the state or community; civil affairs.

P. 295. "*Mise-en-scène*." Literally, placing in scene; the getting up or putting in preparation of a dramatic piece.

P. 297. "*A non lucendo*." Latin. From not shining.

P. 298. "*Clientèle*." Patronage.

P. 299. "*Ouvrière*." The feminine form of *ouvrier*; a workwoman.

P. 300. "*Le mauvais*," etc. Bad taste leads to crime.

P. 301. "Pennedepie." A small place in Normandy.

P. 304. "*Cinque-Cento*" [ching-kwe-chen'to]. Italian. The 16th century, with especial reference to the fine arts of that period.

P. 307. "*Simplette*." Simplicity.

P. 308. "*Désœuvrement*." Want of occupation; idleness.

P. 309. "*Flâneurs*." Strollers; saunterers.

P. 312. "*Chevaux-de-frise*" [shē-vō'de-frēz']. Literally, horses of Friesland; pieces of timber or iron from which protrude pointed spikes, employed to impede the progress of cavalry or to defend a passage; hence an obstacle, an obstruction.

P. 313. "*Sauve que peut*." Save himself who can.

P. 313. "*Il faut*," etc. It is necessary to live, to fight, and to expire with one's own.

REQUIRED READING IN "THE CHAUTAUQUAN."

"A CENTURY OF FRENCH COSTUME."

1. "Beauharnais" [bō-ar-nā'].
2. "Tallien" [tā-lē-an' or tā-lyan'].
3. "Cabarrus" [kā bā-rūs'].
4. "Chimay" [shē-mā'].
5. "Frascati" [frās-kā'te]. An Italian town a few miles southeast of Rome.

6. "Consulate." See "The Growth of the French Nation," page 306.

7. "Boieldieu" [bwol-dyē']. A composer of comic operas.

8. "Toquet" [to-kā']. A toque.

9. The "Restoration" in the history of France is "the return of the Bourbons to power in 1814 (called the first Restoration) and after the episode of the Hundred Days in 1851 (called the second Restoration)."

10. "Gavarni" [gä-vär-nē']. The pseudonym of Sulpice Guillaume Paul Chevalier, a French caricaturist (1801-66). Being employed as a draftsman in the town of Tarbes he was brought into prominence by his sketches of life and scenes in the Pyrenees to which he subscribed himself Gavarni, the name of a neighboring town. He is noted for his representations of Parisian life.

11. "La Juive" [la zhüēv]. "The Jewess." One of Halévy's operas.

12. "*Pardessus*." An overcoat.

13. "Bugeaud" [bü-zhō'].

14. "*Canezous*." Rather shapeless small spencer-like sacques.

15. "Talmas." Short, full capes, usually having hoods, worn in the first half of the present century. They were probably so called from Talma, a French tragedian who was the first to introduce on the French stage the custom of wearing the costume in vogue during the period represented in the play.

16. "Ristori" [ris-to'ri]. A loose open jacket so

named from Adelaide Ristori, an Italian actress.—

"Zouave." A lady's jacket similar to that worn by the Zouaves, a corps of light infantry in the French army originally composed of Arabs but now of Frenchmen who are distinguished for their showy oriental costume as well as for their bravery.—
"Figaro." A jacket named for Figaro, the character introduced by Beaumarchais in his plays.

17. "Titian-colored." The beautiful auburn tint seen in some of the noted portraits by Titian, the Venetian painter.

18. "*Cogues*" [koks]. A French word meaning literally, shells; small bows of ribbon used for trimming purposes.

19. "Magenta." This color, a shade of red, was so named from Magenta, a town in Italy where a battle was fought in 1859, the year in which the dye was discovered.—"Solferino." A purplish rose color discovered about the time when the battle of Solferino was fought, hence its name. Shanghai and peking were yellow.

"THE FRENCH CHARACTER IN POLITICS."

1. "*L'État c'est moi*." "I am the state," a phrase said to have been used by Louis XIV., probably in 1655 when the Parliament seemed unwilling to yield to his authority.

2. "Simon" [sē-mon'].

3. "Freycinet" [frā-sē-nā'].

4. "Ferry" [fā-re'].

5. "Goblet" [gō-blā'].

"CARDINAL MAZARIN."

1. "Hôtel de Cluny" [ō-tel' de klü-nē']. A palace in Paris erected by the abbots of Cluny at the close of the 15th and the beginning of the 16th century, on the site of an ancient Roman palace said to have been assigned to the emperor Constantine Chlorus.

The ruins of the *Thermes*, or baths, are the only remains of the ancient palace still existing.

2. "Nuncios." From the Latin word *nuntius*, a messenger; diplomatic representatives of the pope at a foreign court. Besides representing the pope as a temporal sovereign they are sometimes authorized to investigate and report concerning the condition of ecclesiastical affairs.

"THE FRENCH REVOLUTION."

1. "Rabaut de Saint-Etienne" [ră-bô'de san-tă-te-en]. A prominent member of the Constituent Assembly (1789-92). After joining the Girondists he was outlawed, and executed in 1793.

2. "Marat" [mă-ră']. A member of the Jacobin Club. He was stabbed in his own home by Charlotte Corday.—"Robespierre" [ro'bes-peer or ro-bes-pe-ër']. The leader of the Mountain and during the Reign of Terror his position as president of the Committee of Public Safety gave him almost unlimited power. He was guillotined in 1794.

3. *Verdâtre*. A French word meaning greenish.

4. The "Brunswick manifesto" was published by the Duke of Brunswick, Charles William Ferdinand, in 1792, in which he announced his intention to march upon Paris and reduce that city by cutting off the supplies.

5. "Dumouriez" [dü-mōō-ryă'].

6. "Ther-mi-do'ri-ans." The Moderate party during the Revolution in France, which favored the overthrow of Robespierre.

7. "The Mountain." See "The Growth of the French Nation," page 288.

"THE SOCIAL LIFE OF ANCIENT GREECE."

1. The Persian Wars ended about 479 B. C. and Alexander the Great began his reign about 336 B. C.

2. "Bœotia" [bē-ō'shi-ä]. A district of central Greece north of the Gulf of Corinth.

3. "Spartan." Belonging to Sparta, an ancient city of southern Greece.

4. "Attic." Pertaining to Attica, a Grecian state, or to the state or city of Athens; Athenian.

5. "Age of Pericles." A most brilliant period of Athenian history in which Pericles was the popular leader. His administration continued from about 469 to 429 B. C.

6. "Gymnasia." The Latin plural of *gymnasium*. The *gymnasium* was a feature of almost every ancient Greek community. Originally it was merely an open space of ground where athletic exercises were practiced, but later large buildings elaborately decorated were erected and frequently libraries and lecture rooms were combined with it.

7. "Themistocles" [the-mis'to-klēz]. A political leader of the Athenians born in the latter part of the 6th century B. C.

8. "Peiræus" [pi-rē'us]. One of the chief ports of Greece and the seaport of Athens, situated five miles southwest of Athens.

9. "Isocrates" [i-sok'ră-tēz]. A noted Athenian orator and teacher of political oratory. His orations were written for use in his school but they were recited in almost every country inhabited by Greeks. It is said that he labored more than ten years in writing his "Panegyricus."

10. "Solon." The great Athenian lawgiver. He died about 559 B. C.

11. "Parthenon." A large temple built in the 5th century B. C. in honor of Pallas Athene, the goddess of wisdom and war.

12. "Astragals" [as'tra-gals]. Dice for which huckle bones were used by ancient Greeks.

13. "Agamemnon." According to the legendary history of Greece, the king of Mycenæ and the most powerful ruler in that country.—"Odysseus." A legendary hero of the Trojan War whose exploits are celebrated in the *Odyssey*.

"THE RISE AND FALL OF NEW FRANCE."

1. "Attakapas" [a-tăk'a-paw]. A popular name for a large and fertile district in southern Louisiana which produces large quantities of sugar.—"Opelousas" [ôp-e-lōō'sas]. A town about fifty-six miles west of Baton Rouge.

2. "Vergennes" [ver-zhen']. A French diplomat and as minister of foreign affairs under Louis XVI. he concluded the treaty of alliance with the United States in 1778 and signed the treaty of Paris in 1783.

3. "Lameth" [lă-mă'].

4. "Brisson de Warville" [brē-so'de văr-věl'].

5. "State of Franklin" was the name given to the state government organized by the settlers in east Tennessee in 1785. The constitution adopted resembled that of North Carolina by which, up to this time, the settlers had been governed. John Sevier [sē-veer] was elected governor and the first and only session of the legislature was held at Jonesborough in 1785.

6. "Legaré" [le-grē'].

Note.—The author of "The French Republic," published in the October number of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*, desires to correct his statement in regard to the public debt of France. Instead of being the second largest in the world it is the largest, and amounts to nearly 40,000 millions of francs, or about \$8,000,000,000.

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS.

ON THE C. L. S. C. TEXT-BOOKS.

"THE GROWTH OF THE FRENCH NATION."

1. Q. By what is the period of the religious civil wars characterized? A. By the almost total loss of the royal authority.

2. Q. What body was called to the aid of the government? A. The Estates-General.

3. Q. What tendency indicated a return to feudal customs? A. A tendency to establish local independent governments.

4. Q. What policy did Henry IV. follow in regard to the Estates-General? A. He repressed this body and called an Assembly of Notables at Rouen in 1596.

5. Q. What was the great object of the foreign policy of Henry IV.? A. To keep in check the house of Hapsburg.

6. Q. When did Richelieu begin to control public affairs? A. In 1624.

7. Q. From what active troubles was the Thirty Years' War the final outcome? A. The troubles between the Protestants and Catholics in Bohemia.

8. Q. How did Richelieu's diplomacy differ from that of preceding statesmen? A. He disregarded religious differences and kept steadily in view the advantage of the state.

9. Q. Against what ancient power of the Parliament did Richelieu take a decided stand? A. The right of registration.

10. Q. By what name were the successive stages of the war of the Fronde called? A. Parliamentary Fronde, princely Fronde, led by the princes of the blood and the great nobles, and the popular Fronde.

11. Q. Which of these had a constitutional object in view? A. The parliamentary Fronde.

12. Q. Whose reign occupies a large place in the popular conception of the history of France? A. The reign of Louis XIV.

13. Q. By what problem was Louis confronted when he assumed the government? A. By the problem of state finances.

14. Q. To whom was given the control of the finances? A. To Colbert.

15. Q. To what branches of financial administration did he give his attention? A. To revenue reform and the protective theory.

16. Q. What were the wars of Louis XIV.? A. The conquest of the Spanish Netherlands; war with the Dutch Republic; war against the coalition of European states, and the War of the Spanish Succession.

17. Q. In the last of these wars against whom did France fight? A. Nearly the whole of Europe.

18. Q. In what condition was France left by this war? A. Crippled and exhausted.

19. Q. What was an important element in the decline of France? A. The revocation of the Edict of Nantes.

20. Q. What were the famous articles of the liberties of the Gallican Church? A. (1) The pope has no right to interfere in the political affairs of states; (2) general councils of the church are superior to the pope in the government of the church; (3) the pope has no right to change the usages and rules of the Gallican Church; (4) the final determination of the doctrines of the church rests with a general council.

21. Q. In the reign of Louis XIV. what principle was made the fundamental theory of the state? A. Royal absolutism.

22. Q. When Louis XV. ascended the throne of France what subjects were beginning to call the attention of the Continent? A. Commerce and colonial expansion.

23. Q. What nation was the great rival of France? A. The English.

24. Q. What was the object of the "Quadruple Alliance" and by what countries was it formed? A. To enforce the terms of the treaty of Utrecht; by France, Holland, England, and Austria.

25. Q. How did Law attempt to improve the financial condition of the government? A. By establishing a private bank with power to issue paper currency redeemable in gold of a fixed standard, and by the organization of the Mississippi Company.

26. Q. What led to the alliance of France and Spain against England? A. Their fear of the growing commercial and colonial power of England.

27. Q. What was the result of the Seven Years' War? A. France lost her colonial possessions in North America, and the prospect of a world empire.

28. Q. By what fundamental principle did Turgot undertake a reform in the financial affairs of the French government? A. No repudiation, no loans, and no heavier taxes.

29. Q. The interests of what class of people were affected by these reforms? A. The privileged classes.

30. Q. How did the king aid the privileged class in their opposition to the reforms? A. By reestablishing the Parlement.

31. Q. For what purpose did Necker publish an official statement of the condition of the national finances? A. To increase public confidence and so to secure a better market for his loans.

32. Q. When was the Estates-General convened? A. In May, 1789.

33. Q. In what way does the French Revolution differ from that of other nations? A. Instead of removing obstacles to the natural development of the nation it changed the fundamental ideas of the state.

34. Q. What was the underlying fact of the preparation for the Revolution? A. The universal conviction of the nation that far-reaching reforms must be made.

"FRENCH TRAITS."

1. Q. What first of all distinguishes French democracy from our own? A. Its ideality.

2. Q. What is French democracy? A. A creed—a positive cult rather than a working principle.

3. Q. How did the French win their autonomy? A. Through the universal appeal of principle.

4. Q. In what way does our democracy best show its unideal quality? A. In the exaltation of character, national as well as individual, over institutions.

5. Q. What is the French notion of civilization? A. That civilization means the improving of character by institutions.

6. Q. By what is our democracy constantly menaced? A. By the growing heterogeneity of our society.

7. Q. What is the great practical distinction of French democracy? A. It is at once popular and authoritative.

8. Q. What is always the danger of democracy? A. Despotism.

9. Q. Where opportunity is lacking, as in France, how does the democratic instinct require that its absence be supplied? A. That it be supplied by law, by regulations, and by a minute explicitness of administration.

10. Q. Why is it necessary for France to be a unit? A. Because "France has an enemy in every prince."

11. Q. To what degree are the French successful and in what do they fail? A. They are successful in so far as institutions affect a people and they fail just in those qualities which no institutions can touch in people to affect them in any way?

12. Q. What effect had the Revolution on French democracy? A. The Revolution awakened it into consciousness, imbued it with ideality, sat-

urated it with sentiment, and endued it with efficient force.

13. Q. In what sense only is self-government exclusively Anglo-Saxon? A. In the sense of private rather than official government.

14. Q. What is really meant by self-government? A. Representative government or else local self-government.

15. Q. What does history show in regard to representative government? A. That it is not in itself a talisman, and though it tends to promote liberty it easily may be used to subvert equality and fraternity.

16. Q. With the French what does revolution mean? A. Largely change of administration.

17. Q. Does the French revolutionary spirit conflict with what we ordinarily mean by respect for law? A. No.

18. Q. By what was much of the violence of the Revolution animated? A. By a certain loftiness of political purpose.

19. Q. From what did the cruelty of this time proceed? A. From individual rather than national character.

20. Q. Both historically and essentially what does the French revolutionary spirit mean? A. It means devotion to reason.

21. Q. How do we commonly interpret the division of French Republicans into so many groups? A. As indicating an inaptitude for democratic institutions and being an evidence of a French "lack of political sense."

22. Q. What do we need to give our patriotism a tinge of chauvinism? A. Only the proximity of the foreigner.

23. Q. In what proportion are we apt to fancy that we have become cosmopolitan? A. In proportion as we have lost our provincialism.

24. Q. In what are New York and Paris strongly contrasted? A. In moral atmosphere and in material aspect.

25. Q. To what is the subtle influence pervading the moral atmosphere in New York, which distinguishes life there from life in Paris, distinctly traceable? A. To the intense individualism which prevails among us.

26. Q. To what is the French immunity from the necessity of "proving all things" due? A. To centuries of sifting, ages of gravitation toward harmony and homogeneity.

THE QUESTION TABLE.

ANSWERS IN NEXT NUMBER.

FRENCH LITERATURE.—III.

1. What new period in French literature does the fifteenth century usher in? Who were the first writers of this period?
2. What in French literature is known as the *Pléiade*?
3. When, by whom, and for what purpose was the French Academy founded?
4. What great work resulted from it, and how many years were occupied in its completion?
5. To what Greek writers may Corneille, Racine, and Voltaire be compared?
6. What is the distinguishing feature of Molière's writings? What place does he hold among French writers?
7. What three women are connected with the literature of the seventeenth century?
8. Which of these has been termed the most famous letter-writer in the world?
9. To what work did Diderot devote the greater part of his literary life?
10. Who was La Fontaine, when did he live, and what is the character of his writings?

FRENCH HISTORY.—III.

1. Upon what subject did the minister of war and the minister of marine during the time of Louis XIV. agree?
2. According to estimates how much work was done for France by Vauban?
3. What invention was due to Vauban?
4. When was the foundation laid for the claims and counterclaims which have disturbed France and Germany?
5. Of what siege was a first attempt to organize a navy the outcome?
6. What is another name for the battle of Blenheim?
7. When was Gibraltar taken by the English?
8. What did the intendants report to King Louis XIV. respecting the condition of the provinces?
9. What are *lettres de cachets*?
10. What by some is considered the greatest work of codification executed from the time of Justinian to that of Napoleon?

ASTRONOMY.—III.

1. In principle with what is the phenomenon called a transit exactly identical?
2. What planets present this phenomenon?
3. When and by whom was a transit of Venus first observed?

4. How often do transits of Venus occur?
5. When did the last transit of Venus occur?
6. According to calculations when will Venus again present this phenomenon?
7. What practical use has been made of the transits of Venus?
8. By what names did the ancients know Venus?
9. What important use has been made of the eclipses of Jupiter's satellites?
10. Who discovered the spots on the sun?

CURRENT EVENTS.—III.

1. Upon what is the composition of the French House of Deputies based?
2. What are the legal qualifications for election to the Chamber of Deputies?
3. Of how many members is the House of Deputies composed?
4. What salary does a deputy receive? What is the salary of a member of the United States House of Representatives?
5. What time has been fixed upon for holding presidential elections in the United States?
6. To how many presidential electors is each state entitled? If the presidential electors fail to elect a president upon what body does this duty devolve?
7. When was the College of New Jersey chartered?
8. To what warlike uses were the college halls devoted at the time of the Revolution? What distinguished visitors were present at the commencement in 1783?
9. What is the reigning dynasty of China and why so called?
10. Of what religion is the emperor the head?

ANSWERS TO QUESTIONS IN "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FOR NOVEMBER.

FRENCH LITERATURE.—II.

1. Poetry.
2. The latter part of the fifteenth century.
3. Froissart.
4. The "Song of Roland."
5. François de Salignac de la Mothe-Fénelon. He was banished from court and died at Cambrai in 1715.
6. Louise Labé. Her husband was a rich merchant, by trade a rope-maker.
7. Jacques Jasmin.
8. Translated by Longfellow as the "Blind Girl of Castel Cuillé."
9. "Les Provinciales."
10. Montaigne.

FRENCH HISTORY.—II.

1. St. Martin.
2. In 300 at Ligugé, near Poitiers.

3. By St. Benedict in the sixth century. 4. He fortified the city, paved the streets, established a system of police, and pushed forward the work on the church of Notre Dame. 5. The thirteenth century. 6. The king. 7. The orders of the mendicants were created. 8. The long bow, lances, and bombards, a kind of cannon. 9. He demanded that six citizens with halters about their necks should bring him the keys of the town and place themselves at his disposal. 10. Sire Eustache de St. Pierre, the richest burgess of the town, and five others volunteered their services, and the king gave the order to behead them; but by the petition of Queen Philippa they were spared.

ASTRONOMY.—II.

1. Wandering stars. 2. A non-luminous body moving round the sun, from which it receives light and heat. 3. Mercury, Venus, Earth, Mars, Jupiter,

Saturn, Uranus, and Neptune. 4. A planet which travels around the sun within the earth's orbit; a planet which revolves around the sun without or beyond the earth's orbit. 5. Mercury and Venus. 6. A body which revolves around a planet. 7. Moons and secondary planets. 8. Twenty. 9. Earth, Mars, Jupiter, Saturn, Uranus, and Neptune. 10. From west to east, except those of Uranus and Neptune, which revolve from east to west.

CURRENT EVENTS.—II.

1. In February, 1885. 2. It is built on two islets in Zulla Bay, on the western shore of the Red Sea. 3. Eritrea or Erythræa; since 1890. 4. Her uncle, William IV. 5. George III. 6. Empress of India; 1876. 7. Emperor Francis Joseph of Austria-Hungary. 8. In 1800. 9. It did away with the Parliament at Dublin, giving the Irish representation at Westminster. 10. Since 1878.

THE C. L. S. C. CLASSES.

1882-1900.

CLASS OF 1897.—"THE ROMANS."

"Veni, Vidi, Vici."

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CLASS EMBLEM—IVY.

MANY members of the Roman Class are availing themselves of the opportunity to have the memoranda corrected and returned. Careful attention is given to this part of the work by the central office at Buffalo and the fact that many are glad to pay the small fee for this additional privilege shows how anxious Chautauqua students are to do work that is really worthy.

ONE member of a family living in Sam Kong, China, has from the necessities of the case carried on her work at great disadvantage. Two little children have also come into the household within the four years and these in addition to the demands which are always to be found in a mission field impose no slight task upon this student. Yet this missionary reader has taken time to reread at least one set of the books.

MEMBERS of '97 are urged to remember that as seniors they have a special responsibility toward the incoming class and reminded that their influence, representing as it does those who are near the goal,

can do much to cheer on those who are just starting in the race.

CLASS OF 1898.—"THE LANIERS."

"The humblest life that lives may be divine."

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CLASS FLOWER—VIOLET.

THE Laniers are showing a commendable degree of interest in the work of their third year. Memberships are being renewed and the word "Lanier" is of frequent occurrence in the letters which find their way to the Chautauqua Office. A member from Maryland writes, "Another year's work is finished, but I fear very imperfectly; still I have found profit and enjoyment in trying to accomplish it, though I have struggled through many difficulties. But I am not at all discouraged. The Chautauqua readings have opened new life and thought to me and I hope will make me a more useful woman."

ANOTHER member from Minnesota writes: "I cannot find words that will fully express the high esteem in which I hold the Chautauqua course. I can only say that I owe more to it than I will ever be able to repay. In the short time I have been a member of the circle I have learned much of what is good, just, and right."

CLASS OF 1899.—"THE PATRIOTS."

"Fidelity, Fraternity."

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CLASS EMBLEMS—THE FLAG AND THE FERN LEAF.

CLASS COLOR—BLUE.

A MEMBER of the Class of '99 in Macedonia, Turkey, is doing his work under peculiarly difficult circumstances as several numbers of THE CHAUTAUQUAN have been detained by the press censor. He is, however, deeply interested in the study and is continuing his work in the class with much enthusiasm. Another member writes from New Jersey that he is obliged to discontinue his work for a time, owing to extra school duties, but that he intends to carry it through when his course is finished. He adds, "The reading I had last year was of very great help to me."

CLASS OF 1900.—"THE NINETEENTH CENTURY CLASS."

"Faith in the God of truth; hope for the unfolding centuries; charity toward all endeavor."

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CLASS EMBLEM—EVERGREEN.

THE new Class of 1900 is rapidly increasing its membership. Although the year nominally begins the 1st of October thousands of new readers are enrolled every year after that date and it is a very simple matter for an enthusiastic beginner to overtake the class.

THE little Review Text-book on French History is proving a great help both in individual and circle work, as the ease with which the weekly lesson is reviewed by means of this help makes it possible for students to gain a clear grasp of the subject even though the work is taken up under difficulties. Members of 1900 may gain courage from the remark of a recent graduate of '96 who says, "I have found the course inspiring and uplifting and feel a greater self-respect for having finished the work irrespective of difficulties."

SOLITARY members of the class are especially congratulated upon their determination to carry on the work even if it must be without companionship, but it is often possible to form a very efficient circle of two or three readers from which great benefit can be derived even where it is not possible to have one of greater dimensions.

GRADUATE CLASSES.

A CIRCULAR recently sent out from the Chautauqua Office in Buffalo calls the especial attention of the graduates to the following points: the necessity for persistent and continued progress in self-culture, the importance of helping to arouse and sustain the Chautauqua spirit in the community, the advantage of maintaining a special graduates' organization in every town to meet at least once a year, and the value of keeping in close touch with the Woman's Club movement and helping to bring Chautauqua courses to the attention of clubs everywhere.

THE change in the Current History memoranda by which the essay feature is removed and questions substituted seems to find favor among students of this special course. Perhaps one of the best results of the recent election contest has been the strengthening of the impression among people everywhere that intelligent thought upon the great questions of the day is vital to the best interests of the nation. The Current History course is a boon to busy Chautauquans who amid the necessity of much other reading feel also the importance of a brief systematic course which will keep them posted as to current events.

A NEW edition of the little C. L. S. C. Handbook of Special Courses has recently been issued and will be mailed to any person desiring it upon receipt of a two-cent stamp by the office at Buffalo.

SOME uncertainty seems to exist in the minds of graduates as to the relation of the higher orders to each other. For the benefit of these we would say that four seals of any kind entitle the member to a place in the Order of the White Seal, seven seals to membership in the League of the Round Table, and fourteen seals, or seven in addition to the first seven, make him a member of the Guild of the Seven Seals. The order seals which are given merely in recognition of the fact that the student has obtained the higher order do not count in admitting him to the order next above.

DIPLOMAS have all been mailed to the graduates of '96 whose reports have reached the office and any graduate who has failed to receive the desired parchment should inform the Buffalo office, addressing John H. Vincent, Buffalo, N. Y.

LOCAL CIRCLES.

C. L. S. C. MOTTOES.

"We Study the Word and the Works of God."

"Let us Keep our Heavenly Father in the Midst."

"Never be Discouraged."

C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS.

OPENING DAY—October 1.
BRYANT DAY—November, second Sunday.
MILTON DAY—December 9.
COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.
LANIER DAY—February 3.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.
LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.

SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.
ADDISON DAY—May 1.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.
INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Saturday after first Tuesday.
ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first Tuesday.

SPECIAL MEMORIAL DAYS FOR 1896-97.

CHARLEMAGNE DAY—October 30.
"SAINT LOUIS" DAY—November 30.
JOAN OF ARC DAY—December 4.
RICHELIEU DAY—January 4.

HOMER DAY—February 12.
SOCRATES DAY—March 5.
EPAMINONDAS DAY—April 24.
PHIDIAS DAY—May 24.

WHAT OUR SECRETARIES ARE DOING.

NEWS from the field shows great Chautauqua activity everywhere. A large supply of Membership Books has been sent to the Pacific coast for distribution through the local office at San Jose and special effort to reach the southern California field more effectively is being made by the workers connected with the Long Beach Assembly near Los Angeles.

The state secretary for Colorado reports an interesting Vesper Service held in the First Baptist Church of Denver just before the opening of the new year, when many of the city pastors took part in the exercises.

State and county secretaries in Nebraska are pushing the work vigorously and the membership of the new class already represents a great many localities. Iowa holds the record at present for the largest proportion of increase of membership in any state reported this fall. A large number of members enrolled at the new Assembly at Des Moines and the Assemblies at Waterloo and Spirit Lake have also made their influence felt very strongly. Many new circles have been reported with a considerable enrollment in almost every case. The city of Des Moines reports no less than eleven circles, taken from an interesting report sent by Mrs. J. H. McCord, president of the Des Moines Chautauqua League.

In Chicago a large and enthusiastic circle has been organized by Dr. Rubinkam, the president of the Class of 1900, and the membership will reach fully one hundred. Indiana promises to make a fine record under the leadership of Rev. Wm. F. Harding, secretary for the southern part of the state, and Rev. W. E. Grose, secretary for Michigan and northern Indiana. The Class of 1900, the Current History work, and graduate courses are all receiving attention.

Chancellor Vincent gave an address on Monday evening, Oct. 5, before the Ninde Circle of Topeka. The address was upon the topic "Greece, France, and the Value of the Study of the Civilization of Each." The bishop's recent visit to Albuquerque, New Mexico, has inspired the organization of a circle of some twenty-five members.

In Juniata County, Pennsylvania, an effort is being made to adopt the C. L. S. C. course as the official reading course for the teachers of the county. A circle at Knoxville has also been organized among the Tioga County teachers. Much general county work is being done everywhere and the results are being seen in the organization of many circles.

A very interesting feature of the fall work is an illustrated lecture on Chautauqua by Mr. Charles Barnard of New York which bears the title "The Town Behind a Fence." The lecture has already been given before a large audience in the Metropolitan Temple and is to be repeated in a number of churches in the vicinity of New York. Enthusiastic C. L. S. C. rallies have been held all through New York State, including the towns of Elmira, Rome, Oswego, Watertown, and Utica. In the latter city there are already four active circles and the work starts out for '96-97 with a new impetus.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.—Canaan is the home of a Chautauqua Circle organized last year under favorable circumstances and the report shows them still in line with '99.

MASSACHUSETTS.—A branch of Keep Pace Circle situated at Waltham finds four not too small a number to carry out the Chautauqua readings.

CONNECTICUT.—A circle has recently been formed at Hartford and with the energetic organizer as president a pleasant winter will be spent in the C. L. S. C. work.—The readers at Wapping

though not so many as last year have begun their work with promise and are on the lookout for new ideas to apply to their plan of study.

NEW YORK.—The cozy circle of three, the Zenobia, still continues to meet at West Valley.—The Ridgebury Circle has reason to be proud of its first year's work and now comes to the front with thirteen active Chautauquans.—The circle at Elmira, with fifteen energetic members, have proved such good exponents of the Chautauqua cause that another circle of equal size has been formed in connection with the North Presbyterian Church of that place.—Wellsville reports two new circles; fourteen readers calling themselves the Altruists meet in the afternoon while the other circle, the Areopagites, hold their meetings in the evening and are strong in their twenty-six progressive members.—An ambitious circle of twenty-three has begun work at Oneida.—The circle at Parishville and Dunkirk go steadily forward.—A movement is on foot to form a circle in the Delaware Avenue Methodist Church of Buffalo, where the Vesper Service has been used with great satisfaction.—Brooklyn adds another circle to its Chautauqua ranks.—The clubs at Albany and Carthage have added each three new names to their lists.

NEW JERSEY.—An effort is being made to interest members of the Christian Endeavor societies of Hudson County in the C. L. S. C. work.—The Beech, Una, Culver, and Grace Chautauqua circles of Jersey City have reorganized; also the Centenary, Epworth League, Simpson, and Morgan Circles.

PENNSYLVANIA.—A few families in Aspinwall became interested in the C. L. S. C. work last year and read the books with much benefit. This year one of the members, pastor of the United Presbyterian Church, has succeeded in reorganizing the circle with fifteen members. He estimates highly the value of the C. L. S. C. as an aid to pastors.—A proposition to start a reading circle in one of the churches at Orwigsburg brought members of other denominations into cooperation and on October 12 a large class was formed. A simple constitution was drawn up and the four ministers of the town, with the principal of the public schools, were made a committee on instruction to apportion the year's work among themselves and be responsible for its development. With such efficient help and management a powerful impetus will be given to educational work in this place.—Two '98's at Montrose are keeping up the C. L. S. C. interest.—The classes of '97, '99, and 1900 are represented in the club at Wellsboro.—The new circle at Ridley Park has been christened the Minerva. The first meeting was a great success and they are in great haste to have all arrangements completed in order to become "full-fledged Chautauquans," as they say.—

A band of close workers has just been organized at Allegheny.

MARYLAND.—The C. L. S. C. is very popular in Baltimore, where a new circle of eleven has been formed under the name of the Lanier. Another club of three will read the year's work but a permanent organization has not been effected.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.—The third year of the Waugh Circle at Washington opens auspiciously. The reading of the opening chapters of the new books and an attractive program were the features of the first meeting.

WEST VIRGINIA.—Six young ladies of Wheeling show their approval of systematized study by joining the C. L. S. C.

GEORGIA.—An individual reader of the Class of '96 organized a circle of eight at Monticello and the work is taken up with good will by each member.

KENTUCKY.—The ladies of the Bowling Green Circle are keeping up the reading with great success and one of the number graduates this year.

TENNESSEE.—The North Knoxville Circle is the name adopted by three readers of the C. L. S. C. in Knoxville. They are unorganized as yet but hope to increase the number very soon and then effect a regular organization.—Several '95's at Tullahoma are studying the French-Greek books with great interest.

ALABAMA.—Ten new members from Troy have launched out with the Class of 1900 and expect to complete the four years' work.

ARKANSAS.—The X-Rays Circle at Eureka Springs is composed of ten ambitious, painstaking members who meet every Monday afternoon and follow the work mapped out in THE CHAUTAUQUAN. The scribe says: "We entertain hope of our circle's being increased during the coming year. As a class we feel that the inspiration and uplifting of thought received while pursuing this course of study richly repays all efforts put forth to accomplish it."—From Corning comes the announcement that the circle there has reorganized with five members.

TEXAS.—An enterprising circle has begun work at Alvin with a goodly number of members. They have chosen for president of the circle a lady of culture and experience who will do much toward making the study profitable and enjoyable.

OHIO.—A new circle is duly officered at Portage.—Thorough work is planned by the new circle at Irondale.—The secretary of the Toledo Circle writes: "I am pleased to announce that our Class of '99, known as the Gleaners, started up in the beginning of the second year with twenty active members who are more eager and energetic with the work than ever. We have adopted a constitution and by-laws and appointed a committee to assign parts to the members for each lesson. We are carrying out the program as given in THE

CHAUTAUQUAN and meet every week at the different homes."—"Never be discouraged" seems to be the motto followed by the circle at Fremont.—Circles at Fostoria, Sidney, and Cincinnati are making rapid progress in C. L. S. C. work.—Through the influence of an individual reader of last year a goodly number of the people in Mechanicsburg have been enlisted in the Chautauqua work.

INDIANA.—The circle meetings at South Wabash bring together a large number of '99's and several members of the new class.

ILLINOIS.—What a number of determined people can do is shown by the report sent by the president of the Chicago Nineteenth Century Circle, who is also president of the Class of 1900. Between sixty and seventy members are now enrolled and more are being added at every meeting. On October 10 the circle and their friends were favored by two very interesting addresses given in the University Congregational Church on "William Morris" and "The Beginnings of French Monarchy," after which about twenty new names were added to the list of members. This circle bids fair to become a powerful stronghold of the C. L. S. C.—Gratifying reports come from Moline Circle; though not so large as formerly the class has a bright outlook for this year.—The membership at West Chicago has attained the proportions of twenty-three.—By dint of persuasion and good management the circle at Murrayville has been revived and reorganized.—After several years of trial the circle at Carlinville finds the Chautauqua study indispensable.—A flourishing circle is just organized at Rock Island.

WISCONSIN.—From Eau Claire comes the report of a circle recently organized in that city and the scribe speaks very highly of the Chautauqua Vesper Service and thinks that had much to do with the formation of the circle.—Thorough work is planned by the new circle at Milwaukee.—Favorable news is received from the circle at Oregon.

MINNESOTA.—The Hope Circle at Minneapolis has begun the year successfully.—The Pierian Circle at Stillwater organized early with a membership of thirty-six. The good influence of the study is felt by all members of the circle.

IOWA.—The Chautauqua sympathizers of Cedar Rapids have organized a circle of twenty-two members. They will meet every Tuesday evening and conduct the recitations by means of questions prepared by members appointed by the instruction committee.—The circle at Winterset is composed of seven '99's and two members of the Class of 1900.—A new circle is launched at Florence.—Chautauquans are doing noble work at Wall Lake and Valley Junction.—A ringing report comes from the secretary of the Des Moines Chautauqua League. The city is being rapidly seeded over

with circles and at the October meeting of the League the following circles were reported: The Frank Russell, Woodland Avenue, Forest Home, Charlemagne, Highland Park, Midland, and Home Circles, with one not yet christened, and a Bible study class. All are energetic members, and will do good work.

MISSOURI.—A band of active young people in Boonville will give the C. L. S. C. a fair trial this year.—The Class of 1900 adds to its list effective workers from St. Louis and Hughesville.—The Iantha Circle of Kansas City is planning delightful programs for the coming winter.

KANSAS.—The circle at Solomon meets Wednesday evenings, using the suggestive programs as guides.—The large circle at Wichita is in good working order with several new names added to the list.—A new circle is organized at Florence.

NEBRASKA.—Crete adds another circle to Nebraska's list.

NORTH DAKOTA.—Readers have organized at Fargo and begin with the determination of doing the whole four years' work.—A promising circle is reading the course at Emerado.

COLORADO.—Classes have been organized at Longmont, Sedalia, and Telluride.—A single reader is pursuing the course at Cripple Creek.

OREGON.—A corps of '99's are making excellent progress in Hillsite.

WYOMING.—A class has been formed at Rawlins which will soon number twenty or thirty.

NEW MEXICO.—A lecture given by Bishop Vincent at Albuquerque has borne good fruit and as the direct outcome a large enthusiastic circle has been formed which promises to develop into a thriving organization.

BAY VIEW, MICH., ASSEMBLY.

The tenth annual session of Bay View Chautauqua was begun July 16 and closed the 29th.

Three C. L. S. C. graduates had the honor of receiving diplomas from the hand of Bishop Vincent. The fact of Bishop Vincent's presence is sufficient evidence of the grand address which memorialized the day. It was an inspiration to Chautauquans and gave a new impulse to the work.

There were meetings of the Round Table and Vesper Services conducted by our faithful and efficient president, Rev. Duncan, assisted by such talent of the Assembly as we could procure from day to day. We feel especially grateful to Professor Sanders of Yale for the fine lecture in which he eulogized the elevated character of Chautauqua work, and for his encouraging words to the workers.

Members of the Class of '96 take up astronomy with zeal and pleasure since hearing Professor Rood, of Albion College, in his profitable lectures.

TALK ABOUT BOOKS.

AS the holidays approach the publishing houses are sending out a large number of books specially appropriate to this season of the year. The book reviews for this month are therefore for the purpose of giving our readers a glimpse of the holiday books, which are varied in form and matter and represent the highest skill in the book-maker's art.

A most admirable work and one from which much pleasure as well as instruction may be derived is "European Architecture,"* by Russell Sturgis, A.M., Ph.D., F.A.I.A., president of the Fine Arts Federation of New York. The author has with fine taste and skill prevented a frequent occurrence of troublesome technicalities, the few used being explained in an appended glossary. The subject, which in itself is exceedingly attractive, he has made doubly so by describing simply and concisely the different varieties of architecture, discovering the reasons for the peculiarities which characterize each style and showing the effect of historical events upon its development. Preceding the first chapter, which treats of Grecian architecture from 600 B.C. to the Roman conquest, is an appropriate introduction giving a succinct account of the archaic methods of constructing and ornamenting structures. Following this are two chapters describing the architecture of Europe from 350 to 1150 A.D., in which is shown how new conditions and new requirements on the part of a government may result in the modification of architectural forms. Early Christian churches, Byzantine decoration, and the development of vaulting are also touched upon. Roman imperial architecture is taken up and the construction of public and private buildings explained. The main part of the work is devoted to the study of

the styles of architectural ornamentation prevailing in France, the provinces north and south of France, Germany, England, and Italy, from early times down to the latter part of the eighteenth century. The author not only describes and explains the different styles of architecture existing in Europe but also many of the buildings which represent the various types of this branch of art. The large number of fine illustrations, consisting of diagrams and reproductions of buildings, portions of buildings, arches,

domes, columns, etc., which appear on almost every page help to produce a vivid impression on the mind of the reader. The advantages of such a work as this are almost inestimable to those who must familiarize themselves with this subject without the help of the monuments which still exist in Europe, it being a great aid to an appreciative interpretation of the photographs of architecture, both modern and ancient. For those who can study abroad the beauty and attractiveness of the famous buildings and the actual enjoyment to be derived from the contemplation and comparison even of their most salient characteristics will be greatly increased if the contents of this book have first been studied. Outside of these inherent merits of the context the book is in its general appearance a work of art.

In "Tommy-Anne and the Three Hearts" * the author has employed a novel method of presenting the truths of nature. By the aid of magic spectacles Tommy-Anne, a little maiden fond of boyish sports, investigates the secrets of nature and learns the "*whys* and the *whats* and the *becauses*" of animal and vegetable life. The author has produced a charming juvenile work, to which the illustrator has added not a little by his artistic sketches. Even the covers, on which appear the faces and forms of numerous members

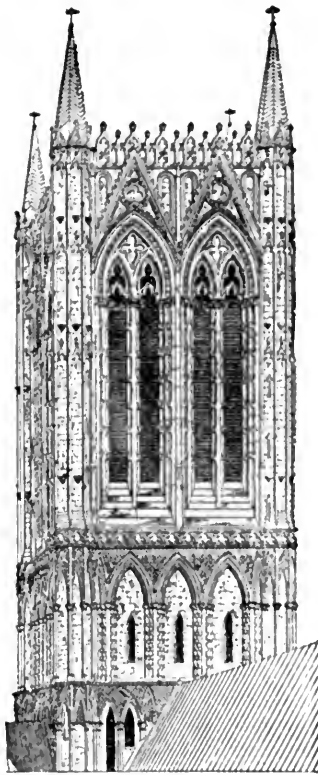


FIG. 163. Lincoln, England: Cathedral. Central tower. 1310 A.D.

From Sturgis' "European Architecture."

Copyright, 1896, by The Macmillan Company.

* European Architecture; A Historical Study. By Russell Sturgis, A.M., Ph.D., F.A.I.A. 606 pp. \$4.00. New York: The Macmillan Company.

* Tommy-Anne and the Three Hearts. By Mabel Osgood Wright. With Illustrations by Albert D. Blashfield. 322 pp. \$1.50. New York: The Macmillan Company.

of the animal kingdom, are signs of the good things to be found within.

From the fertile brain and graceful pen of F. Marion Crawford has come "Taquisara."* Again Italy is the scene of the action, which this time begins in Naples among people of high rank, Count and Countess Macomer and their niece Veronica, a wealthy young princess. Before the reader has turned half a dozen pages he suspects that some horrible deed will be committed, for Donna Veronica, after being importunately urged by her aunt and uncle with whom she lives, has signed a will in their favor in order to make life bearable. That these suspicions are not without grounds is verified as the reader learns that money is what the count and countess must have to prevent bankruptcy or penal servitude or even execution. The methods adopted to secure the money forms the first and most exciting part of the story. The second division, in which the noblest passion of the human heart is the leading motive, deals with the life of Donna Veronica in her feudal castle at Muro, after the base scheming of her relatives has ceased. It is in this part of the plot that the truly noble character of Taquisara, the real nature and disposition of Gianluca, of whom Taquisara is a devoted friend, and the spirit and independence of Veronica are best displayed. Throughout the story is interesting, not alone for the consummate skill with which the author has worked out the plot and drawn his characters but also for his graphic picture of Naples, Neapolitan life, and Italian character.

Mrs. Cliff, who appeals to fame as the possessor of a yacht,† is a lone widow of vast fortune and small desires—an anomaly which the reader longs to set right. More purposeful than she and proportionately more interesting is sweet, wholesome Willy Croup—though why a creature so essentially feminine should be by designation masculine is unkindly withholden from our ken. The arrival of the yacht, half-way through the book, ushers in breezy incidents and original situations truly Stocktonian; for who but Pomona's creator could invent such a delightful jumble of millionaire sailors, fleeing pirates, and fighting parsons, or who but he so audacious as to know that the most proper of us must smile at the vision of prim, religious Willy shouting a pilot's orders with all the lurid vehemence of a sailor's vocabulary? A bit of romance at the end cheerily rounds up the simple plot and lands the book on the goal of success in the unique field of our fanciful American humor.

Of the three complementary pictures of southern

plantation life given us by Harris, Russell, and Page that of the latter is the one we would fain accept as nearest truth, so graciously and tenderly is the outline sketched and so witching the glamour thrown upon his canvas. "Marse Chan" and the other tales comprising the dainty volume "In Ole Virginia"‡ are each clear-cut gems in a glittering chaplet.

"The South Seas,"† a compact, serious-toned volume of traveler's records, shows little of Stevenson's usual artistic polish and keen discrimination of the niceties of thought and speech. But crowded and cumbersome as the material is, it takes no great effort to discern a rich vein of ore running through the mass, and Stevenson's gold is always worth digging.

In direct contrast to the "South Sea" papers are the airy "Fables"‡ by the same author—a dozen or more whimsical bits of embodied philosophy enwrapped with the poetic mysticism of their maker yet showing forth with graphic intensity the underlying truths.

Few writers of the short story have reached a higher mark of strength and quality than did H. C. Bunner, seven of whose best are now given permanent form by publication in one volume under the title of the first, "Love in Old Cloathes,"|| a charming old-time tale redolent with sentiment and scintillant with humor. In all the hand of a master is clearly seen—one that could command the springs of mirth and pathos and draw naught but the purest drops from each.

In the galaxy of fame's fiction favorites "Sentimental Tommy"§—adorable, dangerous, exasperating, incomprehensible Tommy—shines as a bright particular star. The genius that created him as the fellow of the brave miller-journalist, the presumptuous waiter, and all the douce bodies of wonderful Thrums never reached a loftier sweep than when it set the wee ragged laddie among us to proclaim the sweet gospel of childhood. Rare little soul that he is, with the aureole of future greatness often lambent about his head, he is yet so avowedly earthy and so merrily unregenerate that we can follow his boyish gambols with the delight of keen sympathy. The passionate devotion between him and little flaxen-haired Elspeth is one of the most beautiful touches in all child literature, and thrown out against the background of their mother's tragic story makes one long to keep the children ever as

* Taquisara. By F. Marion Crawford. In two vols. 309+317 pp. \$2.00. New York: The Macmillan Company.

† Mrs. Cliff's Yacht. By Frank R. Stockton. Illustrated by A. Forester. 314 pp. \$1.50. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

‡ In Ole Virginia. By Thomas Nelson Page. Illustrated by W. T. Smedley, E. W. Clinedinst, C. S. Reinhart, A. B. Frost, Howard Pyle, and A. Castaigne. 275 pp.—† The South Seas. By Robert Louis Stevenson. 370 pp.—‡ Fables. By Robert Louis Stevenson. 92 pp.—|| Love in Old Cloathes and Other Stories. By H. C. Bunner. Illustrated by W. T. Smedley, Orson Lowell, and Andre Castaigne. 217 pp.—§ Sentimental Tommy. The Story of His Boyhood. By J. M. Barrie. 478 pp. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.



From Mark Twain's "Joan of Arc" Copyright, 1896, by Harper & Brothers

JOAN'S VISION.

they are. When Mr. Barrie makes them grow up, as he has promised to do, we beseech him, with poor Jean Myles, to save them and us from the "magerful man."

If value, interest, and beauty are the three qualities which give prominence to a literary work then "Personal Recollections of Joan of Arc"* should be particularly mentioned as appropriate for this season both for the literary and artistic merit of the work and for its lessons of unselfishness, patriotic enthusiasm, and self-sacrifice, as exemplified in the life of Joan of Arc. Pictorially the work is unexcelled. The illustrating is the work of Mr. Du Mond, who has invested his work with charm and attractiveness by a faithful reproduction of the costumes, sculpture, and architecture of the remote period with which the work deals. A large number of the fine illustrations, all of which cover an entire page, represent

some important event in the life of the French national heroine. Typographically also the work is one of great merit, being printed in clear type on an excellent grade of paper. But that quality which will give not only permanence but prominence to the work is to be found in the textural portion. After reading the recital which vividly portrays every important historical scene in which the heroine was an actor one may well believe that an eye-witness is the reciter, so thoroughly has the author brought out the spirit of the age, investing it with a forceful realism which gives it the weight of truth. Though the "deliverer of France" has been the subject of many a literary work, no one has ever so clearly set forth the steadfastness, the personal dignity, the courage, the perfect purity, the entire unselfishness—in fact the thorough ideality of her character as has Mark Twain by the imaginative setting he has given the historical realities of that period. It is truly a unique history of a unique life.

The main purpose of the "History of the German Struggle for Liberty"* is not to give a full exploitation of the German side of the Napoleonic tyranny, but it is to study the causes and results of the battle of Jena, from which the German Empire and German liberty have developed. The history begins with an account of the execution, by Napoleon's order, of John Palm, the bookseller, whose body, the historian says, "died in the summer of 1806, but, like John Brown of Ossawatimie, 'his

soul is marching on"; for it needed but this to arouse the slumbering patriotism of the Germans. From this event the historian follows the Germans in their struggles until the triumphal entrance into Paris in 1814. One personage, Queen Luis, the author has elevated above all others in force of character and far-reaching influence, placing her in the rank of other national heroines. In a skilful and fascinating way he has recounted the heroic deeds and brave sacrifices of many a German patriot before almost unknown beyond the boundaries of his own native country but without whom the struggle must have been a failure. The entire work, comprising two volumes, shows evidence of a thorough research and investigation of material not usually available to students. Much value has been added to the work by portraits and maps and by the drawings which the artist has in every particular made conformable to historical truth.

* Personal Recollections of Joan of Arc. By the Sieur Louis de Conte. Translated by Jean François Alden. Illustrated by F. V. Du Mond. 475 pp. \$2.50. New York: Harper and Brothers.

* History of the German Struggle for Liberty. By Poultney Bigelow, B. A. Illustrated by R. Caton Woodville. Two vols. 266 + 269 pp. \$5.00. New York: Harper and Brothers.

The curiosity in regard to the Flowery Kingdom aroused anew by the recent visit of Li Hung-Chang will be satisfied by a timely volume called "Alone in China."* Refreshing indeed is the account which Julian Ralph gives of his experiences in the far East, where in company with the illustrator, C. D. Weldon, he spent some time studying the country, the people, and their customs. The recital of his adventures on a trip taken in the *Swallow* houseboat, which forms the introduction of the volume, revolutionizes all the ancient traditions concerning the squalor, the diet, the danger from contagious diseases, and many other annoyances to be encountered in this strange land; for it is of the delightful impressions he has written, in an easy, graceful style in which the serious and humorous are happily combined. The second part of the book is a collection of half a dozen sketches which reproduce life as the author observed it among the natives of China.

In the interest of longevity and of the increased vitality of the human race Genevieve Tucker, M.D., has prepared a manual for mothers called "Mother, Baby, and Nursery."† The prefatory note claims for the prime object of the book the presentation of a "practical summary of the infant's hygiene and physical development," the facts for which were carefully obtained from skilled physicians, nurses, institutions and hospitals for children, and from re-

by the mental, moral, and physical condition of the parents.

How to care for a babe until it is two years of age is the subject of the remainder of the volume, attention being given to food, clothing, posture, exercise, and other subjects relating to the health of a child. "Nursery Pointers" and "Nursery Don'ts" contain hints calculated to increase the comfort of mother and child.

An attractive holiday gift for the little people is the delightfully illustrated poem "The Wonderful Fairies of the Sun."* Dame Nature is aided in her work by industrious little fairies who keep the world clean and bright, some governing the wind, snow, and rain, some looking after Santa Claus' work, and some sprinkling the ground with frost gathered from the place "where the stars were swept and dusted," while the merry rainbow sprites make the arch of polished raindrops and hang it in the sky.

The gifted young Liverpool clergyman who reels off a tale so cannily Scotch has caught the true secret of spirited girlhood in depicting the whole-souled, imperious, lovable young gentlewoman Kate Carnegie.† After our first glimpse of her at the Muirtown Station—that scene in which all the mad elves of capricious drollery seem to be dancing a Highland fling, with fresh-faced little waifs of human nature hanging to their skirts—not for the world would we forsake the chase till we see this eagle among lassies furling her blithe wings in the hand of the clever young demigod of a Free Kirk minister—he who learns in her presence for the first time that its full number of buttons is an advantage to the appearance of a coat. But it is a wild quest she leads him, in which she proves the verity of the grim old couplet,

Scarting and biting
Mak Scots fouk's 'ooing,

and well earns her father's half prideful, half opprobrious title of a "besom"—only to make the prettier contrast when she becomes all gentle



From Barrie's
"A Window in
Thrum's."

Copyright, 1896,
by Dodd,
Mead & Company.

A WOMAN IN A WHITE MUTCH.



From Genevieve Tucker's
"Mother, Baby, and
Nursery."

Copyright, 1896,
by
Roberts Brothers.

THE RIGHT WAY TO HOLD A BABY.

ports of various medical societies. The two chapters on heredity and prenatal influences tell very frankly and in plain terms how the child is affected

* Alone in China. By Julian Ralph. Illustrated by C. D. Weldon. 282 pp. \$2.00. New York: Harper and Brothers.

† Mother, Baby, and Nursery. By Genevieve Tucker, M. D. 161 pp. \$1.50. Boston: Roberts Brothers.

* The Wonderful Fairies of the Sun. By Ernest Vincent Wright. Illustrations by Cora M. Norman. 66 pp. \$1.25. Boston: Roberts Brothers.

† Kate Carnegie. By Ian Maclaren. 358 pp. New York: Dodd, Mead and Company.

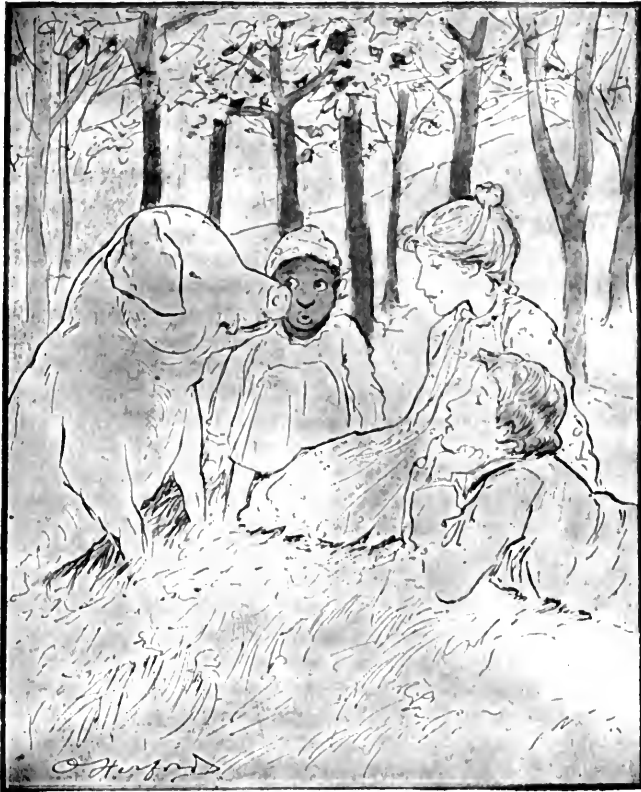
womanliness in nursing the old rabbi, and when like the timid unfolding of a modest flower she discloses her heart's devotion. There is a delightful study of Scotch words from the old laird, and an insight into Scottish character is given which Mr. Barrie and others of our new-school Caledonian writers too often take for granted on our part. If the book lacks the permeating wild-rose scent which so charmed us in the "Bonnie Brier Bush," perhaps the sunny realism of these pages promises not less for the vulgar popularity of the doughty chieftain of the cloth who so gracefully penned them.

Did any one ever say that the pen is mightier than the camera? If so be that our excuse for declaring that to at least one fond reader "A Window in Thrums"* did not need illustrating to make it the freshest, most captivating of picture-books, and that now the ever-resourceful publisher has seen fit to saddle and bridle our fancy by calling up T'nowhead's farm, the com-monty, and all the quaint Thrums features by the prosaic magic of the photographer we feel a bit disenchanted. It is not that these pictures do not tally with our mental ones, for they do; but we miss the "trembling, near-far dimness of things" in which lies the charm of romance. Still we would not deny that illustrated books are very good "for them as likes 'em," and would even concede that the one under discussion is particularly handsome and perfect of its kind.

Again we are taken by Joel Chandler Harris into the pleasant land of the watermelon, the sugar cane,

and the cottonfield. Middle Georgia, we are made to feel, is a wonderful place, the home of wonderful people and of wonderful animals. It is here that we meet again our little friends Buster John, Sweetest Susan, and Drusilla, the colored nurse and playmate, and form an acquaintance with Aaron. It happened in this way: The three little ones were told when they left the country of Mr. Thimblefinger that Aaron, the slave of the plantation, understood the language of animals and that if they would "go to Aaron, son of Ben Ali, take him by his left hand, bend the thumb back, and with the right forefinger make a cross mark on it" they could learn the language too. This the three youngsters de-

cided was just what they would like to know, and so set forth to find "Aaron, the Son of Ben Ali," the feared, the awesome, the dangerous. They find Aaron, who as if by magic teaches them to understand the language of the animals. Gristle, the gray pony in the orchard, begins the story of which Aaron is the hero and before its completion Timoleon, the fierce black horse, Rambler, the track dog, and Grunter, the white pig, each adds a chapter, making a most interesting and composite whole. The superstition



From Joel Chandler Harris' "The Story of Aaron."

Copyright, 1896, by Houghton, Mifflin and Company.

THE WHITE PIG TELLS HIS STORY.

of the negro and the devotion of the slave to the master are skilfully brought out as well as the attachment of the dumb animals to their friends. Typographically the work* is an example of art, being printed in clear type on heavy paper, and bound in covers appropriately stamped in black and green.

* A Window in Thrums. By J. M. Barrie. With illustrations by Clifton Johnson. 262 pp. New York: Dodd, Mead and Company.

* The Story of Aaron. By Joel Chandler Harris. Illustrated by Oliver Herford. 108 pp. \$2.00. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin and Company.

The literary world seizes with avidity everything which will open to it the innermost life and feelings of one at whose shrine it has been a votary. Nothing better serves the purpose of such an exposition than the private correspondence of a man. Thus it is that the letters of Victor Hugo,* so long a leader among French men of letters, have been brought out for the benefit of students of literature and human nature. They represent a period of thirty years. The entire collection shows with what zeal the great French author worked, with what versatile genius he was endowed, and with what freedom and grace he wrote. The fine frontispiece is a portrait of Victor Hugo and embodied in the book is a facsimile of a page from a letter written to one of his children, on which is a sketch of a picturesque boulder in the Pyrenees. In the generally neat make-up of the volume the excellent typographical work is to be specially commended.

Uniquely artistic and most highly befitting the subject is the setting which W. S. Hadaway has given Thomas Bailey Aldrich's poem "Friar Jerome's Beautiful Book." The opening and closing pages are handsomely decorated with deep borders in black and white enclosing rubricated designs, one representing the friar working on his book in his convent cell.

Bent above the lengthening page,
Like some rapt poet o'er his rhyme,

and the other containing the word *Finis* wrought in red and surrounded with delicate traceries in the same color. Banderole-like figures in black and white adorn the top and bottom of each of the other pages. These joined by straight black lines make a tablet-like figure on which are printed between red lines the words of the beautiful poem. The poem itself, recounting with felicitous expression the friar's sorrow for sin, his attempt to expiate it by engrossing and illuminating "The Prophets fell Apocalypse," the miraculous change of one of his illuminations, and the manner in which the book was completed, is well known. In truly Chinese style the edges of the leaves are turned backward in the binding and fastened in covers of leather artistically stamped. For a Christmas remembrance this little book will be most highly appropriate.

"The dumb favorites of distinguished men and women" is the theme of a volume which Kate Sanborn denominates "My Literary Zoo."† A chapter which tells of the tributes paid to lower animal life by literary people is followed by chapters on the affection bestowed by noted people upon dogs and

cats, while the book closes with an account of all sorts of animals which have been petted by mankind. The work is not without interest and shows painstaking care on the part of the author.

Strangely freakish but not uninteresting are the two prominent characters in "March Hares."‡ These two, David Mossdrop and Vestalia Peaussier, acquaintances only by sight, meet by chance one morning about seven o'clock on Westminster Bridge, speak, and decide to spend the day together. After a history of this one day's proceedings astonishment at the unconventional which happens during the remainder of the story is an impossible emotion. There are no deep entanglements, only slight mystifications which are satisfactorily explained at the end of four days, the length of time required for the action of the plot. A wealthy American whose conversation is very bookish, his daughter, and an earl are the other characters in this story, to which the author has given a most apt title.

"Green Gates"† is the title of a novel by Katherine Mary Cheever Meredith which purports to be "an analysis of foolishness." The one personage in the story possessing the feeling that he is guilty of the greatest folly is Mr. Oldfield, a bachelor forty years of age, who loses his heart to Antoinette Jones, or Tony, as she is most frequently called, a young cripple some twenty years his junior. To each of the important characters the author has given some alluring grace which is brought out as the plot is unfolded, and the sad termination of the romance helps to fulfill the purpose for which it was written.

A rare collection of papers, published in 1851 as "Homes of American Authors," now appears in a second edition in the volume called "Little Journeys to the Homes of American Authors."‡ In this work the younger writers of the middle of the present century, George William Curtis, William Cullen Bryant, Caroline H. Kirkland, and others, describe in a charming and interesting manner the homes and haunts of some of the geniuses of the time, including Emerson, Irving, Longfellow, and Bancroft. The accompanying engravings contribute much to the real historic value of the work.

In "A King and a Few Dukes"|| Chambers has produced a romance written in his own inimitable manner. The description of the valleys, mountains, and woods amid which he has placed his characters is alone sufficient to commend the work. Each character is strong in its individuality; the weak but good-hearted king and his profligate dukes, the New York naturalist living among the mountains

* The Letters of Victor Hugo to His Family, to Sainte-Beuve and Others. Edited by Paul Meurice. 277 pp. —† Friar Jerome's Beautiful Book. By Thomas Bailey Aldrich. With decorations by W. S. Hadaway. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin and Company.

‡ My Literary Zoo. By Kate Sanborn. 149 pp. 75 cts. New York: D. Appleton and Company.

* March Hares. By Harold Frederic. 281 pp. \$1.25.—

† Green Gates. By Katherine Mary Cheever Meredith. 257 pp. \$1.25. New York: D. Appleton and Company.

‡ Little Journeys to the Homes of American Authors. 388 pp. \$1.75.—|| A King and a Few Dukes. By Robert W. Chambers. 363 pp. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

to cure a disappointed love, Witch Sylvia, beautiful, capricious, and somewhat of a diplomat, the superstitious and cowardly negro—all contribute to the unflinching interest of the story.

The misconception of the word Bohemian by the average English reader has so hindered the study of the real history of the race that few have any other understanding of the name than the erroneous one of gypsy. In "Bohemia,"* a valuable addition to the Story of the Nations series, the history of that misrepresented country from the earliest to the present time is masterfully and accurately pictured. The work is replete with historic incidents and will find favor with all students of history.

Those who have never had the pleasure of a visit to foreign lands will find some compensation for the loss in books of travel by those who have been more fortunate in this respect. One of the best of this class of literature is "In and Out of Three Normandy Inns,"† in which the author, Anna Bowman Dodd, has reproduced with the cleverness of a skilled artist the picturesqueness of scenery and life along the coast of Normandy. The fisherman, the peasant, and the nun are among the types of life with which the reader seems to live as the writer pictures the famous inns of Villerville, Dives, and Mont St. Michel, relates experiences on an old post-road, recounts the happenings which occurred while she remained at the inns, and recalls to memory the brilliant people who once had been seen about these



From Anna Bowman Dodd's "In and Out of Three Normandy Inns."

Published by the American Publishers' Corporation.

MADAME DE SÉVIGNÉ.

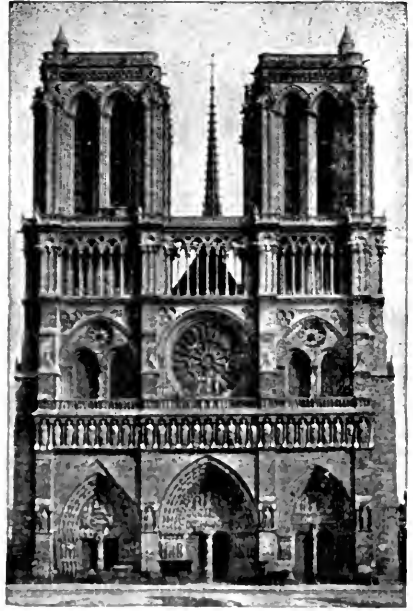
fully the scenes in Normandy have been reproduced by the writer.

"France of To-day"‡ is a survey, comparative

* Bohemia. By C. Edmund Maurice. 533 pp. \$1.50. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

† In and Out of Three Normandy Inns. By Anna Bowman Dodd. Illustrated by C. S. Reinhart and Others. 394 pp. —

‡ France of To-day. By M. Betham Edwards. 335 pp. New York: American Publishers' Corporation.



From Hamlin's "History of Architecture"

Copyright, 1895, by Longmans, Green & Co.

Fig. 124. WEST FRONT OF NOTRE DAME, PARIS.

and retrospective, of a part of Europe which has been much studied but about which as a whole comparatively little is known. The rural life of France is the subject dwelt upon in this volume. The author delineates in a pleasing manner the character of the people in the different provinces and departments of France and gives accounts, and in many instances statistics also, of the industries and productions. The book contains a vast amount of encyclopedic information, the result of observation on the part of the author, in a convenient and interesting form.

As some knowledge of architecture is indispensable to intelligent study of either art or literature, the general reader as well as the college student will be interested in Professor Hamlin's "History of Architecture" published by Longmans, Green and Company. It presents in compact form the salient points in the development of this branch of art, tracing its gradual growth from rude beginnings to the noble Grecian, Roman, and Gothic orders and its subsequent transitions in Renaissance and modern architecture. The author displays not only a thorough knowledge of his subject but skill in making his facts attractive. His style is clear, simple, and free from unnecessary technicalities. The volume is printed in clear type on calendered paper, is illustrated with 230 half-tone engravings, and neatly bound in cloth with gilt lettering. It forms the second number in a series of College Histories of

* A History of Architecture. By A. D. F. Hamlin, A.M. 441 pp. \$2.00. New York: Longmans, Green and Co.

Art edited by Professor John C. Van Dyke of Rutgers's College.

A more delightful book for boys and girls than "The Animal Story Book" * edited by Andrew Lang would be hard to find. The stories, from various sources, "are all true more or less" and told in charming style. There are anecdotes of dogs and cats, wolves and bears, lions and tigers, ants, elephants, rats, snakes, dolphins, birds, monkeys, and every other kind of animal. One chapter tells how a beaver builds his house. Monsieur Dumas and his family of pets are given due consideration. Who could help being interested in the bear that went to the ball, in the pet buzzard that delighted in stealing people's wigs, in the elephant that knelt in fear before the Scotch terrier, in the little dog Zamore that practiced dancing by night and gave an exhibition to his dog friends? These and a hundred other tales make up the volume. The book is handsomely illustrated and bound in blue and gold.

A capital story of school life is told in "Schoolboy Days in France" † by André Laurie. The hero, or rather the heroes are wide awake boys with faults enough to prove their genuineness and manliness enough to excite admiration. They lead a merry and studious life in a Paris *lycée* and come out with strong bodies and trained minds. The story has sufficient action to attract and hold the reader's attention and, barring a few too literal renderings of French idioms, is well told in the English. It describes French school customs so clearly and contains so many helpful suggestions from teachers that a thoughtful boy or girl cannot help being benefited by reading it.

One of the great charms of the Zigzag series has always been the unique and intensely interesting stories. The best of these are now gathered together in attractive form in the volume entitled "Zigzag Stories of History, Travel, and Adventure." ‡ A wide range of subjects is treated in a style that would delight any boy or girl. Illustrations are liberally distributed through its pages and a handsome new cover design makes the exterior almost as attractive as the contents.

Back to what remote ages the history of a country must extend in order that a wealth of legends and myths may be combined with it is uncertain, but only four centuries of time have served to develop an interesting bit of folk-lore of the United States, some of which is so well known as to pass almost for historical facts. The legends of America Charles M. Skinner has collected in a work called "Myths and Legends of Our Own Land," the material for

which he obtained from periodicals, historical records, and oral narratives. According to these two volumes almost every section of the Union has its legendary lore, some of which we already know from the works of Hawthorne, Irving, Longfellow, and other eminent American writers. As might be expected the regions about the Hudson and Delaware Rivers, the island of Manhattan, and the New England States are the most prolific sources from which these stories rise, though the far West, the South, and the Central States, especially about the Great Lakes, are not devoid of their interesting tales. Among the large number of these legends, some of them given to the public for the first time, are the stories of Evangeline, Myles Standish, Skipper Ireson's ride, Hiawatha, and Rip Van Winkle retold in short form. The tales,* all of them interesting, are related in a simple, easy style and the author has done well to help preserve them from the oblivion to which the hurried practicality of the age tends to consign them.

Of all America's literary visitors Thackeray was not the least distinguished, and it is equally true that of the literature thus presented to us little has the high quality of "The Four Georges," † a series



Copyright, 1896, by Flood and Vincent.

THE FOUR GEORGES.

of lectures delivered by the great novelist on the occasion of his second visit, in 1855. These lectures have lost none of their original power to instruct

* The Animal Story Book. Edited by Andrew Lang. 400 pp. \$2.00. New York: Longmans, Green & Co.

† Schoolboy Days in France. By André Laurie. Translated by E. P. Robins. 310 pp. \$1.50.—‡ Zigzag Stories of History, Travel, and Adventure. By Hezekiah Butterworth. 357 pp. \$1.50. Boston: Estes and Lauriat.

* Myths and Legends of Our Own Land. By Charles M. Skinner. Two vols. 319 + 335 pp. \$3.00. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company.

† The Four Georges: Sketches of Manners, Morals, Court and Town Life in the Eighteenth Century. By W. M. Thackeray. 211 pp. \$2.00. Meadville, Pa.: Flood and Vincent.

and delight. History they do not purport to be, but as a vivid picture of English court life during the eighteenth and the first part of the nineteenth centuries they are exceedingly interesting and valuable. No other writer could have done for the peculiar character of the Hanoverian kings what Thackeray's accurate knowledge, power of vivid portrayal, and salient wit have accomplished. Richly bound in vellum and luxuriously illustrated by George Wharton Edwards, the volume is a fine specimen of the book-maker's art.

Few juvenile books contain so much information attractively presented as "The Century Book of Famous Americans."* A party of bright boys and girls make a pilgrimage to historic American homes and learn the important facts connected with each, through conversation with an uncle. Boston, Quincy, New York, Philadelphia, Richmond, Ashland, the Hermitage, Washington, and other places are visited, and Franklin, Alexander Hamilton, Patrick Henry, Jefferson, Andrew Jackson, Washington, and Lincoln are among the heroes discussed. The book is published under the auspices of the national society of the Daughters of the Revolution, and has an introduction by Mrs. Adlai E. Stevenson, president-general of the society. It is generously illustrated with a picture to almost every page.

"Rhymes of the States"† is a new book for children by Garrett Newkirk. The idea is unique and well developed. Two pages are devoted to each state; one gives a condensed statement of its population, industries, and history, the other embodies these ideas in verse illustrated by Harry Fenn. The verses have a jingle that will make them easily remembered and fix their facts firmly in mind. The illustrations picture typical scenes from the states and also show their likeness in shape to familiar objects; for example, Delaware is compared to an upturned shoe, and Mississippi to a coat. The pictures are ingeniously designed and admirably executed and will strengthen the impression of the verses.

A new edition of "Daddy Jake the Runaway"‡ has been called for and appears, sympathetically illustrated by E. W. Kemble, in dainty cloth binding and gilt top. The volume contains "Daddy Jake" and thirteen other stories told after dark by Uncle Remus to the little boy who wins his confidence. These remarkable collections of folk-lore cannot appear too often for those who enjoy and appreciate the new southern literature.



From Elbridge S. Brooks' "The Century Book of Famous Americans." Copyright, 1896, by The Century Co.

GENERAL GRANT'S NEW YORK HOME.

For genuine Christmas sensations in advance one should take a look at Messrs. Prang and Company's display of holiday publications.* Cards, booklets, calendars, and what not, they are beautiful almost beyond description, with their fresh, exquisite blossoms—great soulful bunches of violets, golden-hearted chrysanthemums, laughing-eyed pansies, queenly carnations, and all our floral pets—their winsome, sprightly, or spirited figures, and their apt and suggestive verses and inscriptions. Higher art than these has not been placed within reach of the people, and each dainty piece has a mission of its own in feeding and training the artistic instinct. How many hearts in mansion and cottage will be filled with delight at the arrival of these bright message-bearers is pleasant to think of.

The spirit of progress which has left few places in the United States beyond the touch of the great centers of industry is also active in other parts of the world and particularly in France. M. André Theuriot and M. Léon Lhermitte,† recognizing the fact that a silent but sure degeneration of rural life is taking place, have prepared a most excellent and

* Prang's Holiday Publications. Christmas cards, books and booklets, artistic reproductions of photographs, photo-color prints, facsimile color prints, pencil sketches, outline pictures, etc. Calendars a specialty. The only American line. 5 cts. to \$5.00. Boston: L. Prang & Company.

† Rustic Life in France. By André Theuriot. Translated by Helen B. Dole. With Illustrations by Léon Lhermitte. \$2.50. New York and Boston: Thomas Y. Crowell and Company.

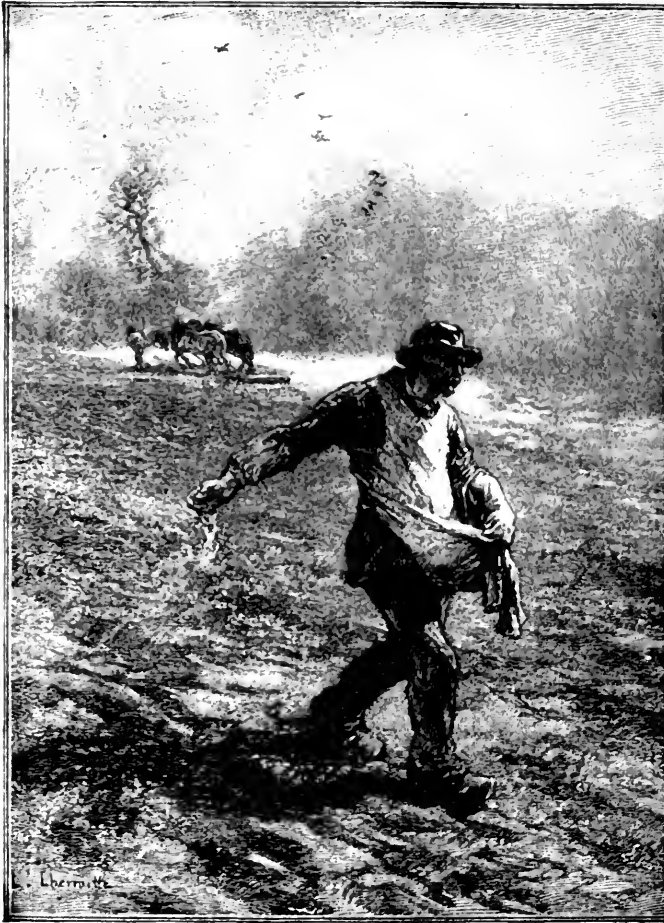
* The Century Book of Famous Americans. By Elbridge S. Brooks. 250 pp. \$1.50.—† Rhymes of the States. By Garrett Newkirk. 96 pp. \$1.00.—‡ Daddy Jake the Runaway, and Short Stories Told After Dark. By Joel Chandler Harris. New Edition. 200 pp. \$1.25. New York: The Century Co.

highly artistic work called "Rustic Life in France" in order "to preserve to posterity the picture of a world and a nature which they may never know." The artist M. Léon Lhermitte, a faithful student of peasant life in all its phases, knows how to bring out all the grandeur and simplicity of the farm life in France, both by his representations of scenes within the humble home and of life in the open air. The pictures representing the peasants, both men

the osier cradle rocked by his mother to the pine coffin where he rests in death." The translation, the work of Mrs. Helen B. Dole, shows the touches of an expert workman by the purity and the excellence of the English into which it has been rendered.

But a single page of "King Noanett"* need be read to convince the reader that here is something different from the ordinary novel of the day, in which the realism so frequently makes perversity of human nature and the baser

passions the motive forces. The quaint, elevated style in which the narrative is given and the purity and loftiness of the sentiment at once rivet the attention and hold it until the final *dénouement*—a climax in which pathos and tragedy are artfully combined. A moor in Devonshire where Bampfylde Moore Carew, in the time of the Commonwealth, meets and loves Mistress St. Aubyn is the opening scene of the story. The banishment of Carew to the American colonies for political reasons results in a long separation of the two. On the voyage across the ocean Carew becomes a firm friend of Miles Courtenay, a young Irishman on shipboard whose wit, humor, and good nature enliven the recital and whose deep affection for Carew endears him to the heart of the reader. The common purpose of the two friends in America—to find a lost loved one—is set against a background of historical events in which Indian, Puritan, and the Virginia planter play a part. The genius of the author has produced a love story filled with the



From André Theuriot's "Rustic Life in France."

Copyright, 1896, by Thomas Y. Crowell and Company.

SOWING THE SEED.

and women, at work in the hay-field and in the potato-field, the sowing of seed, the plowing and the reaping, are especially suggestive of the force and beauty of Millet's exquisite work, while all the illustrations show an unusual degree of familiarity with the subject. No less attractive is the sympathetic word-picture which M. André Lhermitte has combined with the graphic reproductions of the artist. With fascinating simplicity he has brought before us the peasant in every stage of life, "from

tenderest sentiment and one which will serve as an example of the ideal in fiction writing.

For a fuller announcement of books and a more complete description of fall and winter literature see pages 221-256 of the present number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

* King Noanett: A Story of Old Virginia and the Massachusetts Bay. By F. J. Stimson. 340 pp. \$2.00. Boston and New York: Lamson, Wolfe, and Company.



Costume under the Consulate.

Costume under the Restoration.

Costume of the Present Academicians.

COSTUMES OF THE INSTITUTE OF FRANCE.

THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

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JANUARY, 1897.

No. 4.

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REQUIRED READING FOR THE CHAUTAUQUA LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CIRCLE.

THE FRENCH ACADEMY.*

BY JEANNETTE L. GILDER.

ONE bright, cool evening in July last I strolled with some friends through the Latin Quarter of Paris. When you mention the Latin Quarter to most Americans they think at once of mad student life, of grisettes, and nowa days of Trilby and her artist friends. It is, however, a great mistake to think that the Latin Quarter is given over to madcap pranks and revelry. There is, I admit, a great deal of that sort of thing to be found over there, but not as much real wickedness, I am quite confident, as will be found on the more fashionable side of the river. The intellectual life of Paris is to be found on the left bank of the Seine. The Sorbonne is over there, so is the College of France, the legislature, the École Polytechnique, the Bibliothèque Nationale,¹ and there stands the

Institute in which the Forty Immortals meet.

It was in July, as I have said, and at night, that I walked in the shadow of that historic pile. The moon was shining high and clear in the heavens, and well that it was, for the streets in that quarter of Paris are not very well lighted after the *cafés* are closed, though as they are not closed until very late the streets get the benefit. There are no *cafés* in the immediate vicinity of the Institute so we were very grateful to the moon for illuminating the scene. To be perfectly honest I did not see much of the building, for it was entirely surrounded by a high brick wall, but I knew that it was there for I could see the dome, and that was something.



M. LE DUC D'AUMAË.
Director of the Académie Française.

I put my hand on the cold bricks and I thought of all that it meant to a Frenchman to have the right to pass that big gate and sit in that gloomy pile beyond that wall.

*The Notes on the Required Reading in THE CHAUTAUQUAN will be found following those on the books of the course, in the C. L. S. C. Department of the magazine.

It is the ambition of every Frenchman who devotes himself to literature or science to end his days as a member of the Academy. No other country has such an institution and it is very doubtful if such an one could be founded to day and successfully carried on even in France. It is its age that lends much of its dignity to the Academy, age and its accompaniment, tradition.

He was actively interested in it from the first and it is fair to believe that without his powerful encouragement it could not have played so important a part in the history of French literature. The great cardinal saw in this organization an opportunity to create a fixed standard of grammar and rhetoric, and France owes him a debt of gratitude for



HALL OF PUBLIC SESSIONS OF THE ACADEMIE FRANÇAISE.

There have been some famous Frenchmen who have not belonged to the Academy—Molière, Balzac, Dumas *père*, and Michelet—but there have been more who have.

It is rather interesting, considering the high opinion men have of it, that the Academy was founded by a woman, and it is an illustration of the sarcasm of destiny that women are not admitted to its membership. They may have all the influence with its members that they need wish for, but it is from the outside.

Catherine de Vivonne, Marquise de Rambouillet, and a writer by the name of Valentin Conrart² were the founders of the French Academy, though Richelieu is generally ac-

this, for she is the only country that has a final court of appeal in these matters. Conrart was made perpetual secretary of the Academy and it was his duty and that of his thirty-nine associates "to purify and fix the national tongue, to throw light upon its obscurities, to maintain its character and principles, and at its private meetings to keep this object in view. The director of the Academy was to take the advice of the other members of the company on the order in which tasks were to be executed." The members were to supply vacancies in their ranks by election.

The first meetings of the Academy were held at the house of Conrart, but they were

soon transferred to the Louvre. From the very first women attended the meetings and had great influence with its members, but that was all.

The Academy was founded in 1637, and the present body claims a direct descent from it, though this is stoutly denied. In 1793 the original Academy perished with the monarchy and it was not really set upon its feet until Napoleon undertook that office in 1803 and lodged it in the Palais Mazarin.

I am indebted for a great many facts concerning the Academy to an article that appeared in 1883, written, I believe, by the late Professor Boyesen, who had been at great pains to inform himself on the subject during a visit to France. From this article I learn that the perpetual secretary of the Academy has a salary of twelve thousand francs a year and a spacious lodging at the Institute. His influence in the literary world is like still water, that runs deep; but on the other hand, "to change the simile, like the brook he runs on forever, for his position is for life. He attends every public and private sitting, and is the first to enter and the last to leave. It is he who "gives sequence to the general business and turns down work for the director, who



M. GASTON PARIS.
One of the New Academicians.

leaves all initiative to him." In the prize awards, which exceed the sum of eighty-five thousand francs annually, his suggestions are always the ones that carry the most weight. Of this sum twenty thousand francs is given to the Frenchman whom the Academy thinks has written the book most



ANTECHAMBER OF THE HALL OF PRIVATE SESSIONS OF THE ACADEMIE FRANÇAISE

useful to the advancement of manners and morals. It must be a difficult matter to award this prize at times, particularly in these latter days.

The *fauteuil*³ (armchair) in which every Immortal is supposed to sit is an entirely imaginary piece of furniture. At one time they did have this luxury, for Louis XIV. presented each member with one, but when Napoleon restored the Immortals to power he gave them plain chairs without arms.

Again to quote from Professor Boyesen, old court formalities were observed at the Academy's receptions at the Louvre. Members were placed around a long table, at one end of which sat the director and at the other the new comer. It rarely happened that all the two score attended. Twenty-six was the average maximum. But members of the Academies of Soissons and Marseilles received vacant armchairs. When all the academicians were seated the director and the neophyte, who alone had entered with their heads covered, placed themselves at the ends of the table. After he had delivered his speech the director took off his hat and made a sweeping bow to the gentleman facing him. It was the sign that his turn had come. When

the *récipiendaire*⁴ spoke of the king he uncovered his head and bowed.

The public meetings of the Academy are now held in the Institute, or what was once the chapel of the Palais Mazarin, the central rotunda of which I saw under that July moon. The different "classes" or academies forming the Institute sit on the platform. There are three chairs for the officers and a reading desk before which the *récipiendaire* is seated. This happy man when he enters is accompanied by soldiers and escorted by his sponsors and the members of the bureau in full uniform. This



HALL OF PRIVATE SESSIONS OF THE ACADEMIE FRANÇAISE.

uniform is composed of trousers and a coat covered with palm leaves embroidered in green silk. It is very unbecoming to most men, but there is not a Frenchman living who would not be delighted to see himself in it regardless of this fact.

Indeed so anxious are they to have the privilege of wearing this coat that they will go any lengths to attain it. It is considered no disgrace for an aspirant to do his own electioneering. It is well known that M. Zola presents his name every time that there is a vacancy, and other men of letters who are more retiring in their dispositions have pulled every wire to gain an armchair. A house-to-house canvass among the members has been resorted to by no less a man of letters and affairs than the late M. Thiers, and he won his seat by his assiduity.

Knowing what it means to a Frenchman to be an academician one can hardly be surprised at the lengths that he will go to win the coveted prize. No matter what he may say of the faults and failings of the Academy every Frenchman of letters dreams of possessing a *fauteuil*, for there is nothing, no matter what the success of his books with the public, that will give him so enviable a position. It is the one thing that he longs for the most and the one thing that he is the most unhappy without. It is the crowning glory of his career, and if it does not fall to



MARQUIS COSTA DE BEAUREGARD.
One of the New Academicians.

his lot to wear the palm-embroidered coat he feels that his life has been a failure and the worst of it is that his fellow-countrymen feel that it has too.

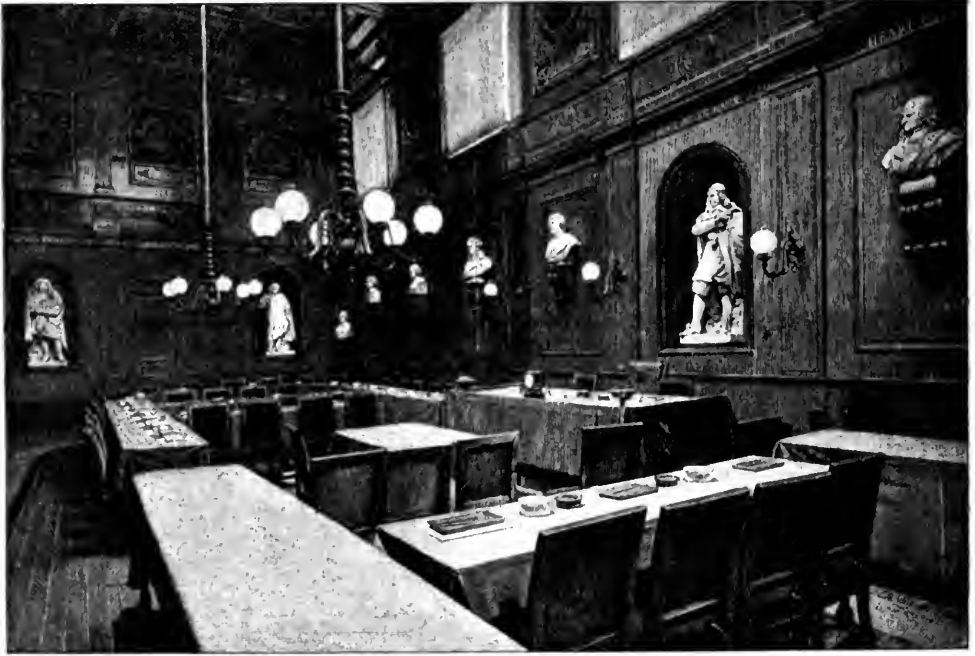
HISTORIC NAMES AND INCIDENTS OF THE FRENCH ACADEMY.

BY PROFESSOR JAMES A. HARRISON, LL.D., L.H.D.

OF THE UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA.

THE first historic and perhaps most celebrated incident connected with the academic function of the French Academy was its "Sentiments on the Poem of 'Le Cid.'" Richelieu was a rabid Spain-hater as well as a jealous author himself, and when Corneille's glorious drama appeared in 1636, magnifying Castilian

and medieval, a whole *opus* of weighty works where before there was, dramatically, nothing but a maudlin assemblage of worthless Italian, Spanish, and antique imitations; and the examination turned out to be a masterpiece of calm deliberation and clear-sighted criticism, a little tart here and there, a little magisterial, but generally



HALL OF PRIVATE SESSIONS OF THE FOUR ACADEMIES ALLIED WITH THE
ACADÉMIE FRANÇAISE.

pomp and majesty and the national hero of Spain, he became as alarmed, said one of his contemporaries, as if he saw the Spaniards already at the gates of Paris; and he ordered a summary and instant judgment from the academicians on this national indiscretion. The wily body took six months to examine Corneille's drama, the first of the splendid series of dramas with which he enriched his country's literature, pagan and Christian, Roman, Greek,

grave, simple, profound, and just—though it did call Chimène, the heroine, an unnatural daughter. All Paris raved over the "Cid," including many academicians themselves, and Boileau, years after, crystallized the feeling of the time in his famous couplet:

*En vain contre "Le Cid" un ministre se ligue,¹
Tout Paris pour Chimène a les yeux de Rodrigue.*

Voltaire in the eighteenth century and Théophile Gautier, the "impeccable author,"



M. BERTRAND.

Racine, his young rival, "After having appeared as a master and reigned like a king over the stage, he came as a docile disciple seeking instruction at our meetings and leaving his laurels at the door of the Academy"

Such was Pierre Corneille, "surnamed the Great," said Voltaire, "to distinguish him not from his brother but from the rest of mankind"; author of "Cinna," "Horace," and "Polyeucte." What a grand send-off for Richelieu's "pet" in the person of this great, good-humored, gentle, timid, sublime old man, who suffered extremes of poverty—pure genius, as Sainte-Beuve describes him, great as that noble tree laden with armor to which Lucan compares Pompey the Great, which when it totters to its fall, leafless yet lofty, does so with sighs and groans almost human in their anguish.

Usually academies of this kind have been founded long after the Augustan Age of the national literature, as in Spain; but it is the unique glory of France that first its Academy came and then the mighty academicians, the true "Augustans," the memorable men who have illumined the wonderful reign of Louis XIV., followed in quick succession—Racine, Molière (a posthumous member), La Bruyère, La Fontaine, Boileau, Bossuet, and all the rest of them, a dazzling throng, a Panathenaic² procession of brilliant, gracious, and courtly figures.

If these men did not "cleanse the lan-

guage of its filth," in the quaint terms of the thought "Les Sentiments de l'Académie sur 'Le Cid,'" which had been drawn up mainly by the poet Chapelain, full of good taste and good sense.

It was beautifully said of Corneille by Jean

M. GASTON BOISSIER.
The Permanent Secretary.

out of the one chair set originally for the director it developed first three (for the chancellor and the perpetual secretary in addition), then forty—those forty *fauteuils* about which Vedrenne has written delightful volumes of rambling miscellany, which M. Alphonse Daudet disdains, and from which many of the most illustrious Frenchmen have been excluded—Descartes because he was an exile, Pascal in the thick of the Molinist-Jansenist⁵ controversy, La Rochefoucauld, a *grand seigneur* who would not solicit votes in the required traditional manner, Molière because he was an actor, Rousseau because he was a Swiss,

Balzac, Gautier, Béranger, the charming poet, Le Sage, the immortal author of "Gil Blas," Bourdaloue, Malebranche,⁶ and Lamennais, the eminent theologians, Diderot,⁷ Alexandre Dumas the elder, Beaumarchais, and Benjamin Constant for divers reasons or none at all.

Many a gay spirit twitted and taunted the Academy, as Piron in his celebrated epitaph, and did not get in; and many another, like Voltaire, Montesquieu, and Maxime du Camp,⁸ twitted and taunted outside, but twittered and sung in celestial strains once



DUC D'AUDIFFRET-PASQUIER.



M. HENRI DE BORNIER.



M. PAUL BOURGET.



DUC DE BROGLIE.

they got into the magic circle. Nearly every illustrious member has had to undergo the purgatory of rejection—Voltaire, Victor Hugo, Lamartine, over and over again. Gassendi, the philosopher, Regnard, the greatest comic writer France has produced after Molière, the Abbé Prévost, author of the remarkable story of “Manon Lescaut,” Saint Evremond, the witty Courier,⁹ the delightful translator of Greek pastorals, never got in at all.

The witty Marshal de Saxe, the gainer of famous victories for France, refused to be elected because he could not spell; but generally an admission to a *fauteuil* of the Academy has been from its foundation to its dissolution in 1793, and since its restoration and reorganization in 1795–1816 as the Institute of France, the most coveted distinction to which a Frenchman could aspire. People have laughed at the fantastic green-embroidered dress coat, cocked hat, and knee-breeches of the typical academicien; they have ridiculed the traditional eulogy of Richelieu, Séguier, and Louis XIV., so long exacted of every newly elected member on entering the august assembly; the throngs of wooden grammarians and silly pedants who have graced or disgraced its chairs to the exclusion of men of world-wide celebrity have been pilloried by Boileau and poisoned by the stings of other satirists—and still the passion to become a member of the Immortals is as inextinguishable in a Frenchman as the pride of an Englishman in his Bill of Rights or of an American in his Declaration of Independence.

One of the true masterpieces of French literature in the Augustan Age is the “Maxims” of La Rochefoucauld, a brief volume of barbed and pungent sayings that dipped their wings not in “tears” but in “gall” and planted their pessimism in the eyes of France during the gloomy war of the Fronde—all in exquisite style. They constitute the Decalogue of the misanthrope, and their needle-like incisiveness pricks the soul to-day and makes it bleed. La Rochefoucauld after Pascal was the first memorable *exclus*¹⁰ of the Academy.

When Boileau besought Molière to give up the profession of the stage that he might enter the magic portals of the Academy Molière made the beautiful answer: “I cannot, my honor will not allow me; my troupe are dependent on me for their bread.”

In this way the world’s greatest comic genius missed the distinction of membership in this famous body, and that body rued the mistake in after years almost with tears.

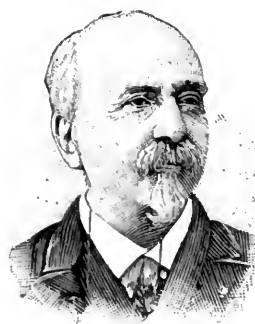
When the turn came for Boileau and La Fontaine—the former, author of memorable satires, epistles, epigrams, the literary king, oracle, and historiographer of his time, the latter, a fable writer whose genius filled France with sunshine—their nomination became an affair of state, and they appeared as rivals. Boileau, who had attacked many academicians with acerbity and was imitated by Pope in his “Dunciad,” was the natural favorite of the court; but La Fontaine (whom the king disliked) was elected. Louis XIV. refused his consent,



M. BRUNETIÈRE.



M. PIERRE LOTI.



M. CHERBULIEZ.

and this genius of the first order, author of fables that every French child learns by heart and lips in his cradle, had to wait for another vacancy.

"Now you can receive M. de La Fontaine; he has promised to be discreet!" said the king (1684).

La Fontaine was indeed a naughty, idle, dreaming, sunshiny, sleepy poet who left his wife, dreamed and idled in fairyland, and wrote marvelous tales in verse after he awoke from his "reveries of a bachelor."

Boileau reigned as the monarch of French criticism and good taste in verse as Pascal and Descartes had reigned over prose, and as Voltaire, a hundred years later, was to reign over every form of French literary fine art. His piquant little mock-heroic "*Le Lutrin*," a gem of musical and humorous persiflage, has been imitated by Pope in his "*Rape of the Lock*."

"Educated like Eliachim, in the shadow of the sanctuary," Jean Racine (1639-99) stands in French literature as the most melodious and many-sided wielder of Alexandrine verse—the national twelve-syllabled heroic verse of France. There is something feminine, tender, appealing, and pathetic in this pupil of Port Royal which places him in vivid contrast with his passionate and manly rival, Corneille, as one might contrast

Euripides the human

With his droppings of warm tears

with the rugged and gigantic figure of Æschylus towering like his own Prometheus to heaven. The great dramas of Racine—"Phèdre," "Andromaque," "Britannicus,"

etc., etc.—traversed almost the whole field of antiquity and by their covert and flattering allusions to the "Great King" prepared the way for his ostentatious reception into the Academy. In his old age, after many years of silence, the Holy Books offered to Racine, at the suggestion of Madame de Maintenon, subjects for his noblest dramas—"Esther" (1689) and "*Athalie*" (1691). His scrupulous, irreproachable style, the splendor and opulence of his imagination, the grand forms of monarchical courtesy under which his Greeks and Romans, kings and queens address each other, the infinite charm of his idiom, the subtle grace of his transitions—"that most difficult master-work of poetry," as Boileau called it—make the "tender and melancholy profile" of this great artist stand out in captivating relief on the coins and in the pages of contemporaries.

The French Academy has always been eminent for the hospitality, the cosmopolitanism, of its taste. While its *fauteuils* have frequently been crowded with officials, magistrates, great lords, politicians, and social grandees, literature, art, and science have outweighed officialism and triumphed over the nepotism of kings and their satellites. Thus the three noblest representatives of French pulpit eloquence in this golden age—Bossuet, Fénelon, and Massillon¹¹—have affixed to their biographies this mystic inscription: "*Reçu à l'Académie Française*"¹²—as if one had said, "Received into the bosom of bliss." Massillon has been called the Racine of the pulpit, the most Ciceronian of French sacred orators,

and he spoke to Louis XV. in delicate and insinuating tones, too melodious, too full of antitheses and scholastic subdivisions, symmetrical forms, and learned allusions to profit this royal rake or hold him back from licentious amours. "Father, I have heard many great orators," said Louis XIV.; "I have been well pleased with them; but every time I have heard you I have been displeased with myself."

Fénelon (1651-1715) and Bossuet (1627-1704) were both tutors to the dauphin, the former best known through the picturesque and poetic pages of "Télémaque," written for the amusement and instruction of the young duke of Burgundy, the latter for his famous funeral orations, "Universal History," and correspondence with Leibnitz with a view to a union between Catholics and Protestants. It was worth dying to be eulogized by Bossuet. Bossuet is the Thunderer, the Olympian Zeus of cathedrals and grand audiences where kings were auditors; Fénelon is the marvelous teacher, admirable pedagogue with lips steeped in honey, critic, romancer, prose poet, full of flowers and fruits, the apostle of quietism in France, a "dainty *bel esprit*,"¹³ as Louis XIV. called him, whimsical to a degree.

Saint Simon, the "Tacitus of Versailles," makes this entry one day in those wonderful "Mémoires" of his which so aptly and copiously describe the court of Louis XIV. and describe it in the terse Tacitean style that has won him the sobriquet:

The public lost soon after [1696] a man illustrious through his wit, his style, and his knowledge of men—I mean La Bruyère, who died of apoplexy at Versailles, after having surpassed Theophrastus, though working after him, and having painted the men of our time in his new "Characters" in a manner inimitable.



M. ANATOLE FRANCE.
One of the New Academicians.

The "Characters" of La Bruyère has become a classic—delicate, slightly morbid, slightly mannerized studies of men, salient and subtle as medallions, clear as cameos, microscopically sculptured, yet pointed and incisive in their delicacy. Sainte-Beuve has drawn a fine parallel between this fastidious *homme-femme*¹⁴ and the great masculine, burly, careless, incomparable Saint Simon, who from the same Versailles comes back glowing, gorged with spoil of men and women, of incident and anecdote, sits up all night setting down what he has seen, heard, and tasted, vivid with life, super-

abounding in detail, rich in repartee and reminiscence, fixing forever in translucent gelatine the thousand originals he has caught on the fly, still palpitating, still struggling, breathing, lying, loving! And yet—Saint Simon was not a



M. LEGOUVÉ.
The Oldest Academician.

member of the French Academy.

French women have never been admitted as members to the august "company" (as the Academy was called), and yet at least two of them—Madame de Sévigné, the brilliant letter-writer, and Madame de Staël, author of "Corinne" and "Germany," have well deserved the honor. In 1702 they were admitted as guests in the person of the Chamillart ladies, who, it is said, requested permission to be present at a meeting in order that they might laugh at their uncle, Monseigneur Chamillart, who was to be "received." But already, under the long protectorate of Louis XV., which lasted fifty-nine years, the *salons* of



M. FRANÇOIS COPPÉE.

Madame de Lambert, Madame de Tencin, Madame Geoffrin, and Mademoiselle de l'Espinasse¹⁵ began to throw out those subtle and innumerable social "antennæ" which felt their way invisibly to the *fauteuils* in the Louvre and tickled and titillated the occupants by flattering and adroit caresses—thus establishing that all-powerful influence of women so affluent in French history, even in the "Palace of Solon," the very sanctuary of art and letters.

The sessions of this literary body first became public in 1671, when the "thanks" of Perrault on his admission were declared so beautiful that the public thereafter were admitted to the academic paradise. Already, in 1667, the young king himself on his return from the campaign in Flanders had determined upon officially recognizing the Academy as one of the great bodies of the state, like parliament, the university, and the grand council, by personally haranguing it on solemn occasions. The forty-three years of this first royal protectorate saw the protector surrounded by all the great men who have illustrated his reign: Condé and Turenne, Colbert and Louvois, Corneille and Molière, Racine, Boileau, La Fontaine, and Bossuet, in all the glory of their prime. The kings of France had always been solicitous for the equality and independence of the academicians, from the "Sun King" to Napoleon III., and they often honored the meetings by their presence.

Fontenelle, the nephew of Corneille and the author of dialogues, pastorals, tragedies, operas, and novels on popular science, is the last illustrious figure of the glorious seventeenth century to unite itself with the Academy. He lived to be a hundred.

At the threshold of the eighteenth century philosophy enters the Academy in the person of the distinguished skeptical jurist

Montesquieu (1689-1755), who in a single phrase of eight lines is said to have delivered the obligatory eulogy on Cardinal Richelieu more perfectly than any of his predecessors. His "Persian Letters" and his philosophic "Spirit of Law" have made him celebrated. The latter was published when he was sixty, and went through twenty-two editions in many languages in eighteen months. Montesquieu, it has been said, discovered the grand art of writing on politics and legislation. In concentrated meditation he recalls Tacitus; in rich poetic diction, his countryman Montaigne.

The one regal incident, royally supreme over all others, connected with the institution in the eighteenth century is what might be called the "Coronation of Voltaire" (1694-1778). François Marie Arouet—"Voltaire" was an assumed name, like "Molière" and "Buffon"—had been repeatedly rejected on presenting himself as a candidate and going round, as in duty bound, soliciting the votes of academicians; but in 1746, through the influence of the king, Madame de Pompadour, and certain friends, he gained admittance, and varied the monotony of the eulogies on Richelieu and Louis by presenting a magnificent picture of the great French writers and the universality of the French tongue, leading in 1755 to the abolition of these cut-and-dried panegyrics and a substitution of orations on the celebrated figures in French history. Voltaire eagerly seized hold of the conception of a great national dictionary, and when over eighty years of age himself assumed charge of the letter A. "Our language," said he, "is a beggar that must be made rich."

Diderot said of himself that he was not possessed of the demon of academies; but Voltaire was, and nobly he proved it. His official apotheosis took place in 1778, after twenty-eight years' absence in voluntary ex-



M. JULES CLARETIE.



M. DE FREYCINET.



M. LUDOVIC HALÉVY.



COMTE D' HAUSSENVILLE.



M. JOSÉ-MARIA DE HEREDIA.



M. HENRI MEILHAC.



M. ÉDOUARD PAILLERON.



M. LAVISSE.

ile from France and after his beautiful tragedies, histories, criticisms, epics, essays of all sorts, memoirs, letters—eighty or ninety volumes of remarkable prose and verse—had been written. The Academy almost fell down in a body and worshiped him. “Gentlemen, I thank you in the name of the alphabet,” he said when they adopted his luminous and far-sighted plan for a true etymological and historical dictionary. All Europe, from Frederick the Great, who caressed and salaried him, to Franklin, who presented his son to be blessed (!) by Voltaire, rendered homage to the fiery little bitter-tongued, vivacious manikin, who cried, on the tenth

gala representation of his *brève*, “You will kill me with pleasure!”

And so they did, for he expired of delight and fatigue, “a good citizen and true Catholic,” yet with the historic “Perhaps” on his lips, May 30, 1778, the greatest of the four great Frenchmen who had glorified the eighteenth century with their works and words.

The other three were Montesquieu, Buffon, and Jean Jacques Rousseau.

Buffon (1707–88) was the man who always put on his grand clothes and arrayed himself *en grande toilette* to compose the chapters of his majestic “Natural History,” an epic poem in a lofty prose recalling the epic prose of Milton and Bossuet. “The body of an athlete and the soul of a sage,” was Voltaire’s description of the eloquent naturalist, who extravagantly admired the English novelist Richardson, as Diderot did, and imitated him in the minuteness and veracity of his work.

“Where wast thou,” said God to Job, “when I was laying the foundations of the earth?” M. de Buffon seems to answer without emotion (says Sainte-Beuve), “I was *there!*” He looks upon the universe, adds the critic, as a sublime romance of which he was part author, and never does a smile of doubt in all the vast circumstantial detail of his “History” curl his lips. His descriptions of the swan, the humming-bird, the horse are as beautiful as poems, and recall the celebrated saying attributed to Buffon: “The style is the man.”

The group of philosophers called encyclopedists, headed by D’Alembert, dominate

the declining years of the Academy, soon to be dissolved (1793) and then to be reconstituted in 1795 and 1816 as the Institute of France—a resurrection, a transfiguration, one might say, in white and glistening robes, more radiant than before, a true palinogenesis.

The last bright rays of the eighteenth century fell on the head of Bernardin de Saint-Pierre, who in 1795 entered the Institute (formerly Academy), after his lovely idyl of "Paul and Virginia" had ravished all breasts by its Virgilian eloquence, its harmonious style, its vivid pictures of the tropics, and its charm of adolescent grace. Saint-Pierre was a devoted follower of the

poetic Rousseau, whose haggard face and heavenly eloquence haunted all hearts in those days and goaded the supple and flexible intelligence of France to new masterpieces in the coming age.

That "old man eloquent" Châteaubriand was soon to show by his "Genius of Christianity," his "Atala" and "René" how richly, tenderly, poetically this new age could write, and how nobly the Academy (of which he became a member) has fulfilled its educational function as the inspirer of great works, the instigator of great deeds, the rewarder of glorious achievements in things spiritual, and the model for true "Immortals" all the world over.

THE FRENCH IMMORTALS.

BY JOHN GENNINGS.

DURING the emperor of Russia's visit to Paris last month a reception was given in his honor at the French Academy and an address of welcome was presented to him. Frenchmen of the frivolous, boulevard type had predicted that His Majesty would inevitably be bored to death by the "Immortals," but the prophets were put to shame. The czar was charmed and interested, for this reason among others, that the French Academy was the only institution in France which had not changed since the Revolution.

The Academy at the present moment has only thirty-six members out of a possible forty; for the chairs made vacant by the deaths of Alexandre Dumas, Jules Simon, Léon Say, and Challemeil-Locour have not yet been filled. The chair of Alexandre Dumas has already been competed for. On June 28 last several candidates, among them MM. Émile Zola, Jean Aicard, and Barbouc, presented themselves, but after eight days of fruitless scrutiny and examination the election was, in despair, postponed to an indefinite date. M. Zola obtained the largest number of votes, ten at the first ballot, afterward eleven, and then fourteen; but in the final ballot he could muster only

eight. At the same meeting, although the academicians could not decide upon a successor to Alexandre Dumas, they elected M. Gaston Paris, a celebrated philologist and professor of dead languages at the College of France, to another vacant chair.

M. Gaston Paris is therefore the most recently elected academician. The oldest, and by his age and date of election the father of the academicians, is M. Ernest Legouvé,¹ who was born in Paris February 15, 1807, and elected to the Academy in 1855. M. Legouvé, although he never produced any work of the first order, is a man who does the greatest honor to French men of letters. In collaboration with Scribe he produced "Adrienne Lecouvreur" and "Bataille des Dames"² at the Comédie Française, and these are still in the repertoire of the Comédie Française. He produced other plays and several romances, pamphlets, and ethical studies and criticisms, and he has varied this heavier work by books on fencing, an art in which he is a past master, and is considered so much an expert that he has been many times chosen as umpire in questions of duels.

After M. Legouvé the oldest member of



M. OCTAVE GRÉARD.



M. JULES LEMAÎTRE.



M. DE VOGÜÉ.



M. ÉMILE OLLIVIER.

the Academy is the Duc de Broglie,³ who has been not only a brilliant writer but has played a prominent part in political and diplomatic affairs in France. Although the Duc de Broglie has published many interesting works, such as "Études Morales et Littéraires," "Frederic II. et Marie Thérèse," "Questions de Religion et d'Histoire," "Le Secret du Roi," "Histoire et Diplomatie,"⁴ etc., he is known to fame rather for his share in the government at the time of the fall of M. Thiers, May 24, 1873.

Let us now examine the career of the other academicians, taking them always in order of date of election. M. Émile Ollivier⁵ was elected on April 7, 1870, when he had been a minister of justice three months. The Academy was accused of gross flattery in this case, for M. Ollivier's literary qualifications were decidedly flimsy. It was therefore

the powerful minister, he who was going to declare war against Prussia "with a light heart," as he himself said a few months later, that the Academy intended to recognize and not the writer. M. Ollivier enjoys the peculiar distinction of being the only academician who has not been solemnly received in public. After the national disasters of the War of 1870-71, for which the responsibility rested in a great measure on M. Ollivier, the Academy did not dare to proceed with his public reception, and apparently the idea of performing the ceremony has been finally abandoned.

The Duc d'Aumale, elected December 30, 1871, is the fourth son of Louis Philippe and Queen Marie Amélie. He has published a "History of the Princes of Condé." Some years ago he earned the gratitude of the Academy by presenting to it his superb *château* at Chantilly—truly a princely gift.

M. Alfred Mézières,⁶ elected January 29, 1874, is professor at the Sorbonne, Republican deputy for the department of Meurthe-et-Moselle,⁷ and president of the Parisian Journalists' Association. He is one of the most sympathetic personages of the Parisian world and a great Shakespearean scholar.

M. Gaston Boissier, elected June 8, 1876, is professor of Latin oratory at the College of France and has been for some time permanent secretary of the Academy. He is considered the most erudite Latin scholar in France.

M. Victorien Sardou, elected June 7, 1877, is the celebrated dramatic author who has produced "Les Pattes de Mouche" (1860), "Nos Intimes" (1861), "Nos Bons Villageois" (1866), "Fernande" (1870), "Patrie" (1869), "Rabagas" (1872), a comedy produced at the Vaudeville which by reason of the transparent and disparaging allusions to Gambetta raised a furious storm, "L'Oncle Sam," which was at first forbidden by the censors for fear of diplomatic complications with the United States, "Daniel Rochat" (1880), "Divorçons" (1880), "Fédora" (1882), "Théodora" (1884), "La Tosca" (1887), "Thermidor" (1891), the great play which provoked a

tumult at the Comédie Française and was suppressed after the third representation, although it has been reproduced recently and played without restriction or objection, "Madame Sans-Gêne," etc., etc.

Le Duc d'Audiffret-Pasquier,⁹ elected December 24, 1878, is an academician who has produced nothing. He has no work to show and malevolent satirists have even alleged that he does not know how to spell.

Worthy to be bracketed with the duke is M. Edmund Rousse, elected May 13, 1880. He is a retired lawyer and his only published work is a volume of his own speeches.

M. Sully-Prudhomme,¹⁰ elected December 8, 1881, is a charming poet whose literary budget is pretty considerable, but who is known to fame by a single poem, "Le Vase Brisé,"¹¹ which is veritably a little masterpiece of style.

M. Victor Cherbuliez,¹² elected on the same day as M. Prudhomme, is of Swiss origin. He was professor of Greek and Latin literature at the University of Geneva, has published several novels of note, and has done a great deal of work for the *Revue des Deux Mondes*.

Monseigneur Perraud, bishop of Autun, elected June 8, 1882, was destined at first for a university career. He entered the normal school in the "letters" section in 1847, but it was not long before he quit teaching to take orders. He has published an important study, "Contemporary Ireland" (1862), pastoral addresses, etc.

M. Édouard Pailleron, elected December 7, 1882, is the son-in-law of M. Buloz, the late editor of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. He is a fairly successful writer for the stage.

M. François Coppée, elected February 21, 1884, is a delightful poet. In 1869 he produced at the Odéon Théâtre a charming piece in verse, "Le Passant," which contributed to the then just rising reputation of Sarah Bernhardt. He has produced two great dramas in verse, "Severs Corelli" and "Pour la Couronne."

M. Joseph Bertrand, elected December 4, 1884, is a mathematician of first rank. His scientific works opened to him at the age of thirty-four the doors of the Academy

of Sciences, of which he is now the permanent secretary.

M. Ludovic Halévy, also elected on December 4, 1884, is an elegant and spiritual dramatic author. With M. Meilhac¹³ he successfully produced several operettas, among them "La Belle Hélène"¹⁴ (music by Offenbach), "Orphée aux Enfers," "La Grande Duchesse de Férostein," "La Vie Parisienne," "Les Brigands," and finally the famous "Carmen" (comic opera, music by Bozet). His best-known romance is "L'Abbé Constantin," which was published in 1882.

M. Édouard Hervé,¹⁵ elected February 11, 1886, is a talented journalist and editor of the *Journal*, the organ of the Orleans family.

M. Octave Gréard, elected November 18, 1886, is vice-rector of the University of



M. VICTORIEN SARDOU.



M. SULLY-PRUDHOMME.



M. ALFRED MÉZIÈRES.



M. ALBERT SOREL.



M. ROUSSEAU.



M. HENRY HOUSSAYE.



M. THUREAU-DANGIN.

Paris, the leading educationist in France.

Le Comte d'Haussenville,¹⁶ elected January 26, 1888, is the son of Count Joseph d'Haussenville, who was also a member of the Academy. His election was due more to family influence than to personal merit, which, however, is not inconsiderable.

M. Jules Claretie,¹⁷ elected January 26, 1886, is a novelist, a dramatist, a journalist, and at present manager of the *Comédie Française*.

M. Henri Meilhac, elected January 26, 1886, is the well-known collaborator of M. Ludovic Halévy.

Le Vicomte Melchior de Vogué, elected November 22, 1888, is an old diplomatist. He has published several historical studies.

M. de Freycinet, elected December 11, 1890, does not possess any claim to literary distinction other than that furnished by his numerous speeches made during his long political career.

M. Pierre Loti, elected May 21, 1891, whose real name is Julien Viaud,¹⁸ is a naval lieutenant. He has published some exotic romances—"Aziyadé" (a Turkish novel), "Rarahu" (a Polynesian idyl), "Madame Chrysanthème," "Le Pêcheur d'Islande,"¹⁹ which was translated into German by Queen Elizabeth of Roumania, etc.

M. Ernest Lavisse, elected June 2, 1892, is professor of modern history at the Sorbonne. His books and speeches have made him very popular among the youth of the schools and he has been president of the Scholars' Association of France.

Viscomte Henri de Bornier,²⁰ elected

February 2, 1893, has produced several dramas in verse.

M. Thureau-Dangin, elected February 2, 1893, is an historian who has devoted himself specially to the epoch of the Restoration and the reign of Louis Philippe.

M. Ferdinand Brunetière,²¹ elected June 8, 1893, represents in the Academy antagonism to the school of realistic literature. The harshness of his criticisms of Zola's work is well known. M. Brunetière is at present director of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*.

M. José Maria de Heredia,²² elected February 22, 1894, is of Cuban origin and a promising poet.

M. Albert Sorel, elected May 31, 1894, is an old statesman who has published several historical works little known to the general public.

M. Paul Bourget,²³ elected May 31, 1894, is the youngest member of the Academy, being only forty-four years of age. His romances are celebrated, but he has pushed to extremes his love of analysis. He revels in the scrutiny of love intrigues and the mysteries of conscience; he is the favorite author of the young men and women of the France of to-day.

M. Henry Houssaye,²⁴ elected December 6, 1894, is an erudite historian, the son of Arsène Houssaye, who under the title of "The Forty-first Fauteuil" published the well-known work in which was given the history of an imaginary chair, the forty-first supposed to be successively occupied since the foundation of the Academy by celebrated

authors to whom the "Immortals" denied admission—great men like Descartes, Pascal, Molière, La Rochefoucauld, Le Sage, J. J. Rousseau, Diderot, Beaumarchais, Paul Louis Courier, Balzac, Lamennais, without counting Piron, who wrote this as his own epitaph:

*Ci-gît Piron qui ne fut rien,
Pas même académicien*

(Here lies Piron, who was nothing, not even an academician),

and Mably, who said to those who were busy trying to get him into the Academy, "If I were a member of the Academy they would say, 'Why is he?' I would rather hear them say, 'Why is he not?'"

M. Jules Lemaitre, elected June 20, 1895, is an old student of the normal school and has devoted himself to literary and dramatic criticism. He is a writer for the *Débats*, is a most scathing critic, and has had some success at the theater. The three last academicians elected, MM. Anatole France, Marquis Costa de Beauregard, and Gaston Paris, have not yet been formally received.

The death of M. Challemlacour in October has made a new vacancy in the Academy, and speculations as to his successor are already rife. He was best known as president of the National Assembly which elected M. Felix Faure to the presidency.

M. Zola has decided to persist in his candidature for the vacant chair of Alexandre Dumas, and all Frenchmen who admire courage and tenacity of purpose heartily wish him success in his enterprise. Is Émile Zola destined to wear the green-laced coat and sword belt of an acade-

mician? That is the question which is now agitating gay Parisians and serious men of letters. Beyond doubt Zola is entitled to whatever honor attaches to the position of an academician, for he is admittedly the most popular and most prolific of living French writers and no one can deny his purity of style and originality of thought. It is hoped that having asserted their dignity by repeatedly rejecting the apostle of realism the academicians will now do their duty to French literature by admitting Émile Zola within their charmed circle.

The candidature of M. Henri Becque has equally warm partisans, but, unhappily for him, although warm they are not numerous, M. Becque having by his biting pen offended some powerful *littérateurs* who might have secured him votes. He is the author of two beautiful pieces which have been played at the Comédie Française, "Les Corbeaux"²⁵ and "La Parisienne." M. Becque has done nothing since the "Parisienne." It was announced five or six years ago that he had written a comedy which would make a sensation. It was a satire on French customs, and the papers went so far as to give its title, "Les Polichinellis," but unfortunately nothing more has been heard of it.

It is impossible within the necessarily circumscribed limits of a magazine article to enter at length into the merits of the many Frenchmen who, with more or less justification, expect to occupy, some day, a seat among the Immortals, but brief mention may be made of a few of them.

M. Jean Aicard is a prolific and charming



M. EDOURD HERVE.



MGR. PERRAUD.



THE LATE M. CHALLEMLACOUR.

poet—although perhaps the wings of his imagination sometimes show signs of fatigue—and he has produced a play at the Comédie Française with fair success.

M. Imbert de St. Amand has written delightfully of the ladies of the ancient courts of France, the Empire, and the Restoration, and his friends think that this entitles him to one of the coveted chairs; but whether the academicians will be of the same opinion remains to be seen.

M. de Karanion will renew his candidature of last June. He is an engineer and has written books of which few people have heard and which fewer still have read. He will be a candidate at the next election.

M. Henri Barboux, who is also a candidate for an existing vacancy, is a distinguished lawyer and an eloquent and successful advocate, but it is thought that his time has not yet come for admission.

M. Hanotaux, at present minister for foreign affairs, is marked out by public opinion for early admission to the Academy. He has recently published the second volume of his excellent "History of Cardinal Richelieu." The best critics of the Parisian press have eulogized the work as worthy of a great historian, and such unanimous praise ought to open the doors of the Academy to M. Hanotaux at his first knock; for how could the members of the institution founded by Cardinal Richelieu be so lacking in gratitude and reverence as to refuse admission to his biographer?

M. André Theuriet²⁶ is thought to have as good a chance as M. Hanotaux of obtaining the necessary majority of votes. M. Theuriet has written much. He is the author of a volume of fresh poetry, "Sous Bois," and of several works of similar character, and he also publishes every year at least one pleasing novel. His purity of

style has many charms, and although his annual romance never differs much from its predecessors, and although the forest scenes which he loves to describe in verse have always the same verdure, the same songs of the same birds, and the same lights and shades, nobody ever dreams of reproaching him for the sin of monotony.

There is no greater contrast in French literature than that which is afforded by the work of M. Theuriet and M. Jean Richepin. The latter is a lyric poet, dramatist, and novelist whose great merits cannot be denied. He would have been admitted to the Academy long ago had he not written a volume of so-called realistic description which amounted to gross obscenity and caused him to lose his civil rights. But M. Richepin's friends urge that he should be judged by his works as a whole, and if that be done he certainly possesses sufficient title to a place among the Forty.

There is probably no French writer better known outside of France than Alphonse Daudet; nor is there a living Frenchman better entitled than he to the position of an academician. But Alphonse Daudet has made himself impossible. In his novel "L'Immortel" he held the Academy up to the most scathing ridicule, and moreover he has accepted a seat in the new rival academy founded only a few months ago in accordance with money and instructions left by the late Jules de Goncourt, the novelist, who was at feud with Richelieu's academy the greater part of his adult life. By the statutes of the Goncourt Academy no member of it can also be a member of the French Academy, and it seems clear, therefore, that Alphonse Daudet has made up his mind that the Immortals shall not be afforded the opportunity of forgiving or of punishing him for making fun of them.

HOTEL DE RAMBOUILLET AND THE RISE OF THE FRENCH ACADEMY.

BY PROFESSOR F. M. WARREN.

OF ADELBERT COLLEGE.

THE various elements which in times past have combined to constitute the civilization of modern France may be quite confidently said to have had their origins in Italy. It was Petrarch and the humanists attendant on the papal court of Avignon who aroused the scholars of Charles V. to an appreciation of the newly discovered manuscripts of classical antiquity. The school of sculpture and architecture that flourished under Francis I. and his successors got its models from the constructions of the Italian renaissance and the statues of Tuscany and the Romagna. The almost contemporaneous reform in literature, which was headed by Ronsard¹ and his fellow authors of the *Pléiade*, received its inspiration from the poets of Florence and the dramatists of Pope Leo X. And when, a generation and more later on, the discord of the civil wars of religion had resolved itself into the harmonious blending of all creeds under Henry IV., when after learning, art, and literature it was the turn of good manners, good taste, and refined social intercourse, it was the example of Italy again that guided the frequenters of the first French *salon*, held under the hospitable roof of the Hôtel de Rambouillet.

A woman was the architect of this building and the founder of this social circle. Catherine de Vivonne, who was married in 1600, at the early age of twelve, to the heir of the house of Rambouillet, was the daughter of an Italian mother and a Roman by birth. With the memories of the cultured surroundings of her childhood still strong in her mind the young bride could hardly fail to be repelled by the provincial customs and intermittent gallantries of Henry IV.'s courtiers. Accordingly on reaching womanhood she resolved to withdraw from active participation in court society and attract to her own house, if possible, a circle of acquaint-

ances whose breeding and ideals should be more to her liking. In 1611 her husband became Marquis de Rambouillet, by his father's death, and about this time the private receptions she may have been holding for two or three years seemed to attain considerable prominence in the society of the capital.

In the dowry she brought her husband was a town house, situated near the Louvre on the side toward the Tuileries. This was an old-fashioned structure, not at all suited to the entertainments she desired. It was small, irregular in shape, and cut in half by staircases. A new building was necessary. The plans submitted by the architects were not to her liking, and reckoning among her many endowments the talent of drawing she herself finally sketched the design which the contractors followed. The staircases were put on one side, leaving all the rooms intercommunicating. The ceilings were raised, the old-style narrow doors and windows were cut wider and longer and set opposite one another, those on the rear opening into the garden. Brick trimmed with stone was chosen for the building material, and when the house was finished new furnishings, new to France at least, were selected for the rooms. Instead of red or tan, the favorite colors of the day, the principal drawing-room was hung in blue velvet embroidered with gold and silver, the first and most famous of the Blue Rooms of social history.

In this room the greatest nobles and most eminent authors of France soon assembled, for they met one another there, patrician and plebeian, on a footing of at least temporary equality. Besides, the gatherings were enlivened and varied by the wit and beauty of those women who were on terms of intimacy with the marchioness. She herself, while not beautiful, was of

commanding presence and winning manners. French and Italian she had by birthright, Spanish she acquired later.

As a member of one of the leading families of the kingdom it is evident that the tone of conversation established by the marchioness at her receptions was not at all pedantic. Indeed there is slight reason to believe that in its beginnings it was even literary. The poet Malherbe², who alludes to her drawing-room in a letter of September, 1613, mentions personal items and society news rather than discussions on art or literature. And it is probable that at this time the features of the Hôtel de Rambouillet were polished manners and brilliant small talk, such as have characterized French society ever since. Later on popular authors and their works would enter into the topics of the day. But at first social entertainment was the rule. French literature under Henry IV. and Marie de Medici was hardly flourishing enough to demand much attention from Montmorencys and princes of the blood royal.

The chief aids of Madame de Rambouillet in this the first period of her *salon* were Madame de Sablé, famous as a society belle and a friend of poets and dramatists, and Angélique Paulet, the most accomplished musician of her time. The court was represented by many of its greatest names, literature evidently by Malherbe alone. The program of the receptions often included amusements of the usual society type varied by disguises of persons and surprises for the guests, in which the hostess seems to have especially delighted. But the great stress was laid upon manners and conversation. Good breeding facilitating the exchange of ideas, criticisms on art or literature, and personal chit-chat coupled with compliments and spiced with a touch of gallantry were the ends of the Hôtel de Rambouillet. Within proper bounds, fixed by good taste and decorum, speech was free in the Blue Room. Its mistress was loyalty itself. Whatever was said in her presence, whether of public or private nature, was held sacred by herself and her guests.

The substance of the conversation mattered little, but the form must be carefully

chosen. In this respect it must be confessed that Madame de Rambouillet was somewhat finical. Certain words and expressions sounded vulgar in her ears. They were tabooed by her friends and renounced by those writers who sought later on to gain the support of this coterie. Here is the germ of that affectation which resulted in the jargon of the *précieuses*. But at its beginning it was necessary to the language. It was a step toward a selection of words, a refinement in phrases, a standard of taste unavoidable to the progress of literary style. Boorish people shared with vulgar words in the marchioness' aversion. The king, Louis XIII. himself, was always unbearable to her from his lack of good manners. For the same reason she rarely was seen in society outside her own drawing-room, and in the intervals of her receptions would pass whole days in reading, a diversion of which she was always fond.

The best days of the Hôtel de Rambouillet date from about 1624. Toward that time the younger daughter of the house, Julie d'Angennes, became an additional attraction, and was the means of introducing to the Blue Room another and younger social element. On the literary side the ever-faithful Malherbe found himself reinforced by his friend the poet Racan³, whose pastoral drama, "*Les Bergeries*" was the great success of the early twenties. Vaugelas, the future grammarian, was there, with Godeau, bishop of Grasse, who eventually earned the title of "Julie's dwarf," Chapelain, the critic, and Conrart, the principal founder of the French Academy. These representatives of the literary world mingled with such men of rank as the Cardinal de la Valette and the Marshal de Grammont⁴. But the chief exponent of the various characteristics of the *salon* at this epoch, and its accredited mouthpiece, was Voiture, poet and letter-writer, a man of parts though deficient in good sense.

The influence of the Hôtel de Rambouillet on French literature is well illustrated on the poetical side by Voiture and on the dramatic by Corneille, who was to be frequently found there on his visits from Rouen to

Paris. It was an influence like Malherbe's, and in line with the general trend of contemporaneous ideas both in literature and politics. The sixteenth century had begun a work which the seventeenth was to complete. In literature it related particularly to a choice of words and syntactical constructions, prerequisites to any standard of style. With such a selection the Blue Room was in hearty sympathy. It threw the weight of society into the scale of linguistic reform. It gave certain words the authority of polite usage and tabooed others as ill bred. Unfortunately there was evil mixed with good. The marchioness' guests were nobles or burgesses of means, their conversation was general, never descending to the level of technical terms and trade expressions. A single reservation might perhaps be made for hunting terms. But on the whole those writers who courted the support of the Blue Room respected the speech boundaries which it set, and the Hôtel de Rambouillet must share in the responsibility of banishing picturesqueness and variety from the classical lexicon of French literature.

Another tendency in the Hôtel de Rambouillet—which was carried to extremes by its imitators—was the superficial gallantry that its ceremonious mingling of the sexes occasioned. Excess of sentimentality in expression was the natural outcome. This tendency had been fostered by the success of D'Urfé's pastoral novel the "*Astrée*," which had appeared in parts from 1610 to 1627. In this book the author relates his own experiences, together with the love affairs of his friends, all disguised as shepherds and shepherdesses. Ardent wooing was the constant attribute of the shepherds, succeeded by deep despair on their rejection. Cold and hard-hearted were the beloved shepherdesses, yielding to their suitors only after most extravagant proofs of devotion. The ideal of the "*Astrée*" resembled the ideal of the Hôtel de Rambouillet in its desire to escape from a rough, actual existence to an ideal refinement, and the story led to many counterparts in real life.

Popularized still more by various adaptations to the stage, its scheme of fictitious

names and notions of unrequited love became all the rage. Even Malherbe, at the age of sixty and over, felt called upon to celebrate the cruel treatment accorded his love by the frigid Rodanthe—by whom he meant the marchioness—while his anagram for her name, Arthénice, became the pseudonym under which she was to figure in the later society novels of the century.

The most noted instance of this conception of love and its reward is offered by the history of Julie d'Angennes and the Marquis Montausier.⁵ For fourteen years a courtship more or less open went on between the two, in its last stages involving the participation of royalty itself in bringing the heroine to terms. Out of this affair grew the famous "*Guirlande de Julie*," the culmination of the gallantry of the age. In 1641, on the occasion of his mistress' birthday, Montausier planned an album of flowers accompanied by madrigals. The flowers were to be painted by one of the masters of the time, the poems were to be penned by famous wits and poets, Chapelain, Godeau, Scudéry, Corneille himself. The plan was carried out and the album offered. Four years later this lover's devotion was rewarded by the concession of Julie's hand.

This marriage marks the end of the Blue Room's preeminence. Deserted by her favorite daughter, the marchioness, quite enfeebled in health, felt herself unequal to large gatherings. Her older daughter, still unmarried, was unattractive and pedantic. Indeed her disdain for simple words occasioned much ridicule among her acquaintance, and probably suggested to Molière the Armande of his "*Femmes Savantes*." To these social drawbacks were added the political disturbances of the Fronde, which exiled many nobles from Paris, and bereavements and deaths among the intimates of the marchioness. Madame de Sablé went into retirement in 1646, Voiture died in 1648, Angélique Paulet in 1650. Other coteries, which had been formed after the model of the Hôtel, now profited by its decline. Aristocrats and citizens sought their diversion elsewhere, the citizens who formed the literary faction assembling chiefly at

Mademoiselle de Scudéry's "Saturdays," which became the principal legatee of the Blue Room.

Mademoiselle de Scudéry had been a friend of Madame de Rambouillet since 1639 and most rightfully succeeded to her influence. But Mademoiselle de Scudéry was a plebeian. Few nobles went to her house; it lacked the society element. Left without their social counterpoise the purely literary conversationalists were free to exaggerate that bent toward pedantry and affectation which was already discernible in the assemblies at the Blue Room, until finally Mademoiselle de Scudéry's "Saturdays" became the real manifestation of that perversion of thought and expression which has been dubbed *préciosité* in the annals of French literature. It is there that the society novels "Le Grand Cyrus" and "Clélie" were fashioned, the former a representation of Parisian society in disguise, the latter famous for its "Map of the Country of Tender," or the geographical reproduction of the *précieuses'* notions of courtship.

Mademoiselle de Scudéry's *salon* was but a copy of the Blue Room with its corrective influences omitted. In its turn it gave rise to imitations of itself, imitations that were one step farther from the real article of the Hôtel de Rambouillet, and farther along the road toward sentimentality in idea and circumlocution in speech. And when these imitations of an imitation were themselves aped in still lower social circles that point of decadence in taste and misuse of language was reached which "Les Précieuses Ridicules" was intended to satirize. The common sense of Molière set up against such an absurdity of overrefinement the claims of nature and the mother tongue. His play showed that the mission of the Hôtel de Rambouillet was ended. It had enjoined good breeding, good taste, and intellectual equality on its age. It bequeathed to posterity the French *salon* and its brilliant conversation.

The spirit which gave birth to the French Academy was in many respects similar to the purpose that created the Hôtel de Rambouillet. It was more literary and less

social. It did not mingle nobles and plebeians together; it was exclusively destined for the sterner sex. But apart from these differences the aims of the organization were directed toward the same ends. It did not concern itself with conversation or with gallantry, but it did exercise itself with questions of style, choice of words, notions of literary decorum, good taste, and correct expression. And it may be that the meetings out of which it grew had been occasioned by the social gatherings in the Blue Room. At least we have seen its most prominent organizers there, Godeau, Chapelain, and Conrart, while many of its members were to lend in 1641 their signatures to the madrigals in the "Guirlande de Julie."

Toward 1629, as Pellisson⁶ tells us in his "History of the French Academy," several citizens of Paris began to meet together with weekly regularity at the house of the one who lived nearest the center of the town, and who happened to be Conrart. They were Godeau, Gombauld, novelist and writer of sonnets, Giry,⁷ the two Haberts, Serizay, and Malleville, all of short-lived fame, with Chapelain, Balzac's friend and successor to his literary primacy. Their topics of conversation were business, the news of the day, and literature, besides criticisms of one another's writings. After the meeting a walk or a supper would end the reunion.

These gatherings were to be kept secret, but Malleville speaking of them one day to his friend Faret⁸ was induced to take him to the next one. Faret soon found occasion to mention this occurrence to Des Marets,⁹ a poet and dramatist, and to Boisrobert,¹⁰ literary purveyor to Richelieu. The news thus reached the ears of that great prime minister. His executive mind immediately grasped the opportunity. Through Boisrobert he offered to take the coterie under his protection and constitute it a regularly organized literary academy after the model of those which had been flourishing so long in Italy. In the France of Louis XIII. Richelieu's desire was law. Malleville and Serizay protested, but the rest thought it prudent to yield. About this time Conrart married, and banished his bachelor friends

from his house. A change of meeting place was necessary and with the change came increase in members, and an organization with a director, secretary, and chancellor as officers. And as a last severing with the informality of the past, on March 13, 1634, the records of the French Academy began.

The purpose of the Academy, as shown by these records, was to "awaken eloquence" and refine the language. Its members should not be necessarily learned or brilliant, but should be possessed of a critical judgment. Their task should be to "cleanse the language of the filth it had contracted either in the mouths of the people and the tradesmen, through the pleadings at law or the bad usage of ignorant courtiers, or the abuse of those who corrupt it in writing it and who say in the pulpits what ought to be said indeed but differently from what should be said. To this end a certain use of words should be established. . . . Those out of place in noble style, for instance, should be allowed in mediocre style and approved in common parlance and in comedy." The name of French Academy was selected after some hesitation, because it was the "most modest and suitable." All of which was ratified by Richelieu after some quibbling over the terms to be employed.

The Hôtel de Rambouillet had set about improving the language by conversation. The Academy sought to reach the same end by legislation. Chapelain recommended to its members that they should first work at a dictionary and grammar, in order to fix the vocabulary and syntax, and that later they should publish a treatise on poetry and rhetoric. The limit of membership was fixed at forty. In January, 1635, a royal decree was issued granting the body a charter. The degree was finally registered by an unwilling Parliament in July, 1637. Monday was the day set apart for the weekly meetings (though other days were often used) and in 1643, after several years of temporary sojournings, the residence of Chancellor Séguier was fixed upon for a permanent abode.

For a year or two the Academy employed its sessions in listening to orations by its D-Jan.

members. Its first public appearance was in obedience to the word of its master, the cardinal. The occasion was the celebrated quarrel of the "Cid," in 1637, and the Academy was to arbitrate the question of Corneille's conformity with good taste and correct usage. When this affair was settled the matter of a grammar and dictionary was taken up. In December, 1637, Vaugelas presented to his fellow-members the material he had collected for his grammar, and ten years later it was published, with valuable results both as to the use and pronunciation of words and the syntax of phrases. In February, 1638, the reading of prose and poetry, from Amyot and Marot down to Malherbe and even the deceased academicians themselves, was begun for the dictionary. But in spite of doubling the weekly sessions this work dragged along, and saw the light only in the last decade of the century, in 1694. In the meantime, however, Vaugelas' example and the Academy's influence had given rise to several linguistic treatises, notably Ménage's "Observations," published in 1673. The works on poetry and rhetoric included in the original plan have never been edited. Its dictionary is still the permanent occupation of the French Academy.

Headed by such men and favored with such protection the popularity of the Academy rapidly increased. It became the goal of literary ambition in France. In the first year of its formation Voiture, the idol of the Hôtel de Rambouillet, was granted an election, and Balzac was offered one—the only instance recorded of the Academy's making the advances. By 1639 the limit of forty was reached and elections became more difficult. In 1640, on the occasion of his admission, the great attorney Patru expressed his gratitude to the Academy in so pleasing an harangue that election orations became the rule for the future. This custom has expanded now to two speeches, one from the newly elected member and one, in reply, from an older academician. As may be expected the theme of the former is the intellectual merit of his predecessor, of the latter the personal gifts of the initiate. In 1655

the first legacy was received, a prize for eloquence founded by Balzac. This has since been supplemented by many other endowments, all with the object of encouraging literary effort and personal worth among the people of France.

The Hôtel de Rambouillet belonged to private life and died with its creator. The French Academy, endowed with the immortality of a self-perpetuating institution, has continued to live on, exercising a steady influence on French thought and expression.

Like all institutions of long existence it is conservative, occasionally slow to appreciate the excellence of what is new in literature and sometimes even exhibiting social or political prejudices. Yet in but rare instances has it persisted in the denial of literary worth or delayed too long in welcoming genuine reformers to its bosom. And more than any other literary foundation of its kind it has stood in French life for that critical judgment and soundness of taste for the maintenance of which it was created.

FRENCH LITERATURE OF TO-DAY.

BY HENRY HOUSSAYE.

OF THE FRENCH ACADEMY.

NO doubt since the death of Victor Hugo, of Renan, of Taine, of Leconte de Lisle¹, of Dumas the younger French literature has been decapitated. But in 1704, for example, when Corneille, Racine, Bossuet, La Fontaine, La Bruyère, La Rochefoucauld were dead, one must have also thought that the literary sap was exhausted. Likewise about 1798, after the death of Voltaire, of Rousseau, of Diderot, of Montesquieu, of Buffon, of André Chénier, literary people must have regarded the present with sadness and the future with anxiety. And yet Châteaubriand was about to publish "Atala"; Lamartine, Vigny, Augustin Thierry, Michelet, Béranger, Auguste Comte, Victor Cousin, were already born; Victor Hugo, Alfred de Musset,² Sainte-Beuve, and Théophile Gautier were soon to be born.

The twentieth century also reserves for France a fine literary harvest. Of this we may be certain. Moreover, even now, if there are no more of what we agree in calling men of genius there is an infinite number of men of the greatest talent.

The romance writers are fond of claiming that the romance is the bread of the mind. I do not agree with them and shall believe rather that it is the dessert. But it is no less true that in regard to production and sale the romance holds the first place in litera-

ture. I shall commence, therefore, by speaking of the romance writers.

The very complex talent of Victor Cherbuliez has many sides and many contrasts. In "Count Kostia," in "Méta Holdenis," in "Ladislas Bolski," in "Choquard's Farm," in short in all his romances, poetry plays a part and irony a still greater part. Observation enriches invention and wit is mingled with knowledge. Cherbuliez knows better how to entice than to move; he has more of sentiment than of passion and more wit than humor. He is rather a successor of Le Sage and of Voltaire than of the Abbé Prévost and of George Sand. Far from allowing himself to be dominated by his characters, he dominates them. Whatever they do, whatever they feel, the author neither acts nor feels with them, and he shows this to the reader by a word, a reflection, or a shaft of fine irony.

Anatole France, the author of the "Crime of Silvestre Bonnard"—a genuine masterpiece—and of the "Red Lily," is also an ironist. He knows how to express all shades of feeling, but he excels in penetrating and reproducing the most complex thoughts. With this refined and subtle story-teller the study of the heart goes along with that of the intellectual personality, which is much more difficult to know and to delineate than the physical personality.

Other ironists are Maurice Barrès, who wrote the "Free Man" and "The Garden of Bérénice," and Paul Hervin, author of those romances at once so true and so cruel, "Painted by Themselves" and "The Armature."

Pierre Loti is at once painter and poet, as Corot was in his landscapes, and as Hébert is in his pensive and mysterious faces. He produces with a broad and ambiguous touch the forms and colors, but he expresses also that "soul" of things of which the Latin poet speaks. If he describes the Indian Ocean or the luxuriant forests of Tahiti he is not satisfied with making us see the mirrorings of the sun on the sheet of amethyst, the infinite horizon where sea and sky mingle, the flowers of the Polynesian flora; he penetrates us with the deep feelings that these grand sights inspire, and often for this purpose one word suffices—a sincere and exact word which finds in us an echo. All poet that he is, Pierre Loti's blue dreams and ethereal thoughts do not remain with him always; he is, on the contrary, very human and very sensual. From his foreign women there breathes a strong perfume, and Yves is a genuine Breton sailor, very real and lifelike, with his vigorous temperament carrying him away to all extremes and his childlike soul full of candor and kindness, with his deep repentances, his oaths so soon forgotten, and his perpetual backslidings. A century from now the "Marriage of Loti" will still be read just as we now read "Paul and Virginia."

Alphonse Daudet is a realist, if you please, but in the style of Charles Dickens; he has poetry, charm, humor, warmth, sensibility. He sympathizes with his characters, and in order to move us he follows the precept of Horace: "If you desire to touch us, begin by being moved first yourself." With him the faculty of observation is not developed at the expense of his critical sense; he believes that it is necessary to choose from the real and take only what is worth the telling. If he happens to compose some romances a little at random in a succession of pictures, such as "The Nabob" and "Numa Roumestan," he also knows how to concentrate

the action, as in the "Evangelist" and in "Sapho." But I prefer to these romances his "Monday Tales"; and in his trilogy of the "Tartarins" he has created a type—a sort of Provençal Don Quixote.

Ferdinand Fabre first made a specialty of ecclesiastical romances: the "Abbé Tigraine," "Lucifer," and others. He engraves with *aqua fortis*.⁴ The outline is exact and firm, the morsure is deep, the manner cold and severe. He is a follower of Stendhal rather than of Balzac. In recent time he has written some romances of peasants to which he has given more freedom and lightness without showing less talent.

André Theuriot paints forests and foresters with truth and poetry. The vicinity of woods is beneficial to his observation as well as to his inspiration. But in Paris he seems to be out of his element and no longer sees correctly.

A man who is not out of his element at Paris is Ludovic Halévy. He loves Paris and observes it without ceasing—even when he does it unconsciously, which is after all the best way to observe. He is thoroughly impregnated with its spirit. Of Paris he knows the outside and the inside, the ceremony and the intimacy, the comedy of its society and the green rooms of its comedy. He knows the coquette and the innocent girl, the duchess and the courtesan. He relates simply and vividly, but with this story-teller there is a satire which puts irony into every smile. He is best known for his pretty romance of the "Abbé Constantin," but his masterpiece is "The Cardinal's Family."

Gyp—by her true name the countess of Martel—is also a real Parisian. She has wit and observation, but her romances and her novels, which she multiplies with the rapidity of a windmill, are far from having the savor of irony and the power of concentration of the books of Ludovic Halévy.

Georges Ohnet⁵ had a great vogue for a few years. Of "Serge Panine" and the "Iron Master" an enormous number of copies were sold. He was talked of for the French Academy. But the tide has turned. His numerous romances still have some

readers, but he hardly counts for anything now in the eyes of literary people. Georges Ohnet did not deserve his immense success any more than he deserves the sudden neglect of which he is the victim.

Catulle Mendès,⁶ a poet, took a notion that, being a poet, he might make some very realistic and very Parisian romances. He has succeeded admirably in the "Virgin King," in "Marguerite," and in the "Home of the Old Lady." But in France when once a writer has received his label it stays on him for all time. In vain will Catulle Mendès produce the most studied, the most lifelike, and the most beautiful romances; he will always be taken for a poet.

I know all that may be said against Émile Zola. I myself while writing criticisms for the *Journal des Débats* combatted with extreme violence his books, his theories, and his intentional vulgarities. But we cannot deny his very great talent and the potency of life with which he animates his characters. Without comparing his work to the "Comédie Humaine" of Balzac, which is much more varied, complex and ingenious, it must be admitted that the twenty volumes of the "Rougon-Macquart" are a monument—a monument a little heavy and without much elegance, but one which is imposing by its mass and its appearance of strength and fascinating with its fine details done by the hand of an artist.

In the manner of Émile Zola, and before Émile Zola, Jules Claretie conceived romances which serve as pictures of contemporary life. For he too has shown us the practical world in his "Renegade" and in his "Minister of State"; the workman's world in "Train Seventeen" and the "Mistress"; the theater in "Three Stories Below"; and the hospital in the "Loves of the Surgeon." Before conceiving his drama Jules Claretie conceives the stage; his characters are only created to motive the decorations and the crowd of supernumeraries. But, though the subject, properly speaking, is with him not the first idea of the romance he does not spare himself in hunting for the subject before setting to work, and he knows how to make it touching and dramatic.

A delicate and restless poet, a subtle and refined critic, Paul Bourget has brought his particular qualities to the romance. He adheres to the study of the smallest details, but his penetrating and complicated analysis, in which the experience of the scholar appears to mingle with the natural delicacy of a woman, aims at the feelings and neglects the sensations. He seeks for the quintessence of the things of the heart and of the things of the intellect. His psychology is entirely subjective, and sometimes it is only by force of his art that he gives the appearance of reality to states of mind and to conditions of consciousness of which he has caught glimpses in his reveries.

If my space were not limited I should try to describe other romance writers of to-day; Robert de Bonnières, a very remarkable writer, author of "The Monastics" and of "The Kiss of Maina"; George Duruy,⁷ who has the double talent of romance writer and historian; Marcel Prévost, author of "Letters from Women" and the "Demi-vierges"; Georges de Peyrbrune and Henri Rabusson, both of whom having made a brilliant début have not yet performed what they promised; Jules Verne, who has made of science and geography what Alexandre Dumas has made of history—a framework for amusing and heroic adventures; Émile Richbourg and Xavier de Montépin,⁸ the great romance writers of the *Petit Journal*; Paul Margueritte, J. K. Huysmans, J. H. Rosny, and Émile Pouillon.

Sully-Prudhomme has written verses on love, as all poets have. Among others the famous "Broken Vase," which is in all the anthologies. But his great originality is that alone, or almost alone, among Frenchmen he has written great philosophical poems: witness "Justice" and "Happiness." By this as well as by the fine tenor of his style, by the originality of his ideas, and by his lofty and severe inspiration he is and will remain in the first rank—not by the side of Hugo, of Lamartine, of Leconte de Lisle, who are above rank, but immediately next to them.

François Coppée has sounded the epic string in his "Narratives" and his "Hun

dred Years' War"; he has produced the beautiful dramas "For the Crown" and "Severo Torelli"; he has sounded a familiar note in his "Modern Poems" and in his "Lowly Ones." Yet he has shown his originality above all in his poems of love and sentiment. There is nothing more sincere than these, nothing more feeling, nothing expressed with more correct effect and more penetrating emotion. Coppée has in him something of De Musset, but of De Musset less bitter and more tender, of De Musset combined with somewhat of Dickens. He is at present the poet of love. It is he who wrote "The Passer-by," that graceful masterpiece destined to eternal youth; it is he who is the author of "The Intimacies," of "The Lute-maker of Cremona," and of so many sonnets and stanzas in which abound lines like these:

To bring the infinite to me in one fair woman's
glance,
And make all nature bloom in a single kiss.

To touch the heart, to cause a tear to roll beneath the eyelid, to recall to the most hardened men the thrills of their first rendezvous, to bring back to the most skeptical the gentle emotions of their first love, is not this a sovereign and unique gift? This is the charming personal power of François Coppée.

José Maria de Heredia has produced only one volume, "The Trophies," and this volume is composed exclusively of sonnets. But he has to some extent renewed and enlarged the sonnet. Up to his time a poet expressed in the fourteen lines of his little poem only a single sentiment or a single idea. Heredia has made of his sonnets so many epics or so many historical paintings, which call forth and recreate the epics that have disappeared. His form is dazzling; one might say that his verses are mosaics of emeralds, of topazes, and of rubies. In the two hundred sonnets of "The Trophies" there are about ten that are the most perfect and the most beautiful that have ever been written in French.

If Heredia is the Benvenuto Cellini of the sonnet, Armand Silvestre is a pagan Petrarch. Petrarch had only one Laura;

Silvestre has thirty-six—brunette, blonde, ruddy, and nut-brown. No one has uttered cries more ardent with sensuality. And what a beautiful style—broad and powerful, in which abundant blood seems to flow.

Catulle Mendès is also a faultless artist in verse. Meter and rime have no secrets for him. Jean Richepin⁹ is hardly less skilful, but in his poems "The Sea" and "Blasphemies" you feel too much the process, the rhetorical amplification. He has shown himself truly original only in his first collection, "The Song of the Beggars." Paul de Roulède¹⁰ sings of the soldier and of battles in vibrating, clarion tones. His verses are not written with all the purity and correctness desirable, but what does it matter to him? He reaches his purpose, which is to move and to captivate.

Léon Dierx is a great poet unknown. While his comrades of the Parnassus School—Sully-Prudhomme, Coppée, Silvestre, and others—have attained celebrity he has remained in obscurity. Yet there are in his "Sealed Lips" some pieces stamped with dark pessimism which are comparable to the most beautiful ones of his master, Jéconte de Lisle.

There yet remain Albert Méral and August Dorchain, delicate painters of the sufferings of the heart; the Viscount of Guerne, author of "Dead Centuries," a grand synthesis of social and religious history; Stéphen Liégeard, the author of "Great Hearts"; Charles Le Goffre and A. Le Braz, narrators of somber Breton legends; Emmanuel des Essarts, who has written the "Poems of the Revolution."

All these poets employ the old poetical molds which have successively served Ronsard, Malherbe, La Fontaine, Racine, Chénier, Lamartine, and Hugo, and they are satisfied with them. But by the side of them has recently arisen a new chorus of poets who have changed all that. They replace rime by assonance, make verses of thirteen, fifteen, and seventeen feet, and suppress the *cæsura* and the rhythm. They make a sort of prose, arbitrarily cut up into irregular lines, and call that poetry. Besides this they strive to have obscure thoughts

and to express them in the most unintelligible words that they can find in the dictionaries or that they can invent. Their works are a collection of enigmas and of logogriphs. This new school, at the head of which are Stéphane Mallarmé, Henri de Régnier, Ferdinand Hérold, and Viellé-Griffin, think that they are going to revolutionize French poetry. I do not think so.

There are also some revolutionists on the stage, the chiefs of whom are Henri Becque and F. de Currel. They claim that constructing a piece as the Greeks, Shakespeare, Molière, Racine, Beaumarchais, Augier, and the two Dumas have done is an "old game." If we are to believe them, no subject is necessary in a piece, nor any plot, nor any beginning, nor any end. It is simply a question of showing a scene from life, "a slice of life," as they say. The dramas and comedies have succeeded very well in the Free Theater before an audience of three hundred dilettanti; but when they have been transferred to a real stage, before a real public, they have generally fallen flat. The real public prefers the pieces of the old school, the pieces of Victorien Sardou, of Édouard Pailleron, of Henri de Bornier, of François Coppée, of Jules Lemaitre, of Henri Meilhac. Some young dramatic authors, however, have combined with talent and success the classic methods and the methods of the Free Theater. These are Georges Porte-Riche, Henri Lavedan, and Maurice Donnay.

History, criticism, and learning have never produced more perfect, more profound, more weighty works than now. If at this end of the century the imaginative sap is perhaps a little exhausted, study, method, and judgment have remarkably advanced.

One may say that all history not written within the last twenty-five years may be and ought to be rewritten. Never has history been written with such an abundance of information, such a sureness of criticism, such a firmness of truth. Read "Europe and the Revolution," by Albert Sorel; the "Seven Years' War," by the Duc de

Broglie; the "History of the Condés," by the Duc d'Aumale; "The Youth of Frederick," by Ernest Lavisse; the "Wars of the Revolution," by Arthur Chuquet; the "Reign of Louis Philippe," by Thureau-Dangin; the "History of Russia," by Alfred Rambaud; "Napoleon and Alexander the First," by Albert Vandal; the "Youth of Napoleon," by Frederick Masson; the "Italian Renaissance," by Émile Gebhart; "Cardinal Richelieu," by Gabriel Hanotaux, and "France Under Richelieu," by the Viscount d'Avenel. It is a resurrection of the past, not with the "approximately" of Thiers nor the dryness of Guizot nor the ingenious, but often delusive, visions of Michelet, but a resurrection into verities that are all alive. Except Augustin Thierry, nobody has written history in France as it is written at present.

The pure scholars, Hellenists, Latinists, medievalists, archeologists, and epigraphists are far superior to their predecessors. Fustel de Coulanges, recently deceased, Gaston Boissier, Michel Bréal, Gaston Paris, Alfred Croiset, Hornelle, Max Collignon, Maspero, Paul Girard, Suchaire, Théodore Reinach, Philippe Berger, and Georges Perrot far surpass, by the sureness of their method and their information and by the talent of their execution, such predecessors as Patin Beulé, Guigniaut, and Marny.

In literary criticism Francisque Sarcey has been for forty years familiarly issuing decrees stamped with pure common sense, not one of which has been broken. Ferdinand Brunetière, one of the most powerful minds of our time, at once a writer and an orator, represents with more brilliancy and originality than Nisard the dogmatic criticism which judges according to the rules, the traditions, or the models of art. His book on the "Evolution of Lyric Poetry" is a masterpiece. Émile Faguet is also a dogmatic critic, but he may be too often charged with placing his strong logic at the service of paradoxical ideas. Jules Lemaitre recognizes no other rule than his own pleasure. If a work pleases him he says so. If it displeases him he says so likewise. But he does not impose his judg-

ment on anybody, because he is the first one to doubt it. His motto is, "What do I know?" He is the Montaigne of criticism and he has Montaigne's wit, light irony, originality of thought, and delicious familiarity of style.

You see that there is still something to read in France, and in fact people are reading enormously. More good books of all kinds are sold than ever before. Formerly the sale of the romances of Balzac, of George Sand, of Flaubert, of Théophile Gautier, of Mérimée, and of Léon Gozlan in the year of their publication varied from three thousand to fifteen thousand copies. To-day the romances of Zola pass one

hundred thousand copies. Those of Daudet, of Loti, of Halévy, of Bourget, of France, of Theuriet, of Claretie reach from twenty thousand to fifty thousand—even seventy thousand copies. And people are not reading romances alone. There is a very large public for the historical studies. Formerly of a historical work, and I mean one of the best, there were sold by installments one thousand copies. If it reached two thousand or three thousand it was a prodigious success. To-day I am acquainted with historical books of which twenty-five thousand copies are sold. It is only the authors whose works do not sell who talk of the crisis in the book business.

THE NEWSPAPER AND PERIODICAL PRESS OF FRANCE.

BY THOMAS H. PRESTON.

THE French press is probably the highest in literary excellence and the lowest in morality and commercial honor of any of the great civilized nations of the world. In this respect it reflects the character of the people, artistic but lacking in depth, caring more for the form than for the substance. Naturally color-printing has been carried to a higher degree of perfection in Paris than any other city, the reproductions of her famous paintings and the colored engravings in the art supplements of leading newspapers, such as the *Figaro*, being unrivaled.

Paris, with her great art centers of the Louvre and the Luxembourg, her scores of schools of painting and drawing, and the general atmosphere of beauty that pervades the city, has brought illustration to a high degree of perfection. Owing to its expense, however, few of the daily newspapers illustrate their articles as a rule and there are no monthly magazines filled with pictures like the *Century* or *Harper's*.

Magazines there are, about a dozen in all, but mostly "magazines of thought," not fiction, such as the *North American Review* or the *Nineteenth Century*. The most prominent of these are: the *Revue des Deux*

Mondes, published semi-monthly; the *Nouvelle Revue*,¹ conducted by Madame Juliette Adam; the *Revue de Paris*, and the *Revue Britannique*, which has an Anglo-French character and in length of articles and general style approaches the *Edinburgh Review*. A unique enterprise in the magazine line was the establishment of the *Cosmopolis* last summer. It is a monthly publication and contains some short stories, in this respect resembling American magazines. But its chief feature is that it is divided into three parts—one third in French, one third in English, and one third in German. It has articles from the pens of well-known public men in each language and its enterprise certainly deserves success.

Illustrated journalism is chiefly confined to the weekly papers, such as the *Illustration*, and is by them brought to a marked degree of excellence. Strange to say, when it comes to a matter of typography and "make-up" the artistic instinct of the French printer seems to desert him. The type is generally bad, the paper very poor, and the different articles are shoved into the form without regard to the picturesque display of the most important news or to chronological or any other order.

As far as news goes, the French do not care for it and, there being scarcely any demand, there is very little supply of what would be called newspapers in America. The bulk of the contents of the French press is articles written in the finest and wittiest style on some trivial subject not necessarily having the remotest relation to any occurrences of the day. These latter are usually condensed into the briefest possible paragraphs in some obscure corner. Of course sometimes events will force them to change their methods. When the late President Carnot was assassinated, for instance, all the French papers led their front page with the account of the crime. The next morning all the passengers in the omnibuses and street cars as well as all the occupants of seats at the *cafés* had a paper in their hands. But it was only on that occasion that I have seen such a general rush for news.

Yet the French papers are read, as is proved by the fact of the enormous number printed, one of which, the *Petit Journal*, claims—and I believe with truth—to have the largest circulation of any daily newspaper in the world. It claims one million and the actual number of copies distributed and sold every day throughout France is about 800,000. Nearly two fifths of the French periodicals are printed in Paris, although the city holds only about one fourteenth of the population. The actual figures are: for the departments, 3,566; for Paris, 2,291. No capital in the world has so many publications. Their number is constantly fluctuating, showing the ephemeral character of many of them. On May 1, 1895, there were 2,401, which was diminished by 110 on June 1, 1896. On the other hand the number of provincial publications had increased from 3,386 to 3,566.

It is interesting to note the classes of Parisian journals which have diminished in number during the year. For instance the advertising sheets have decreased from 31 to 25. There are 44 journals devoted to the fine arts instead of 49, and 181 financial papers against 193. The decrease in the latter is probably due to the gradual disap-

pearance of the South African mining excitement. The organs of Free Masonry have fallen from 10 to 6, while the number of Roman Catholic papers has decreased from 82 to 69. There are only 46 exclusively literary journals instead of 54. The sporting papers have suffered less than the others, decreasing only from 48 to 46. Those devoted to animal magnetism have dropped from 17 to 10 and the number of medical journals has fallen from 191 to 175. The influence of the craze for bicycling which has seized upon all classes of *Parisiennes*, causing them to neglect their pianos, is reflected in the diminution of the regular musical publications from 31 to 24—a heavy percentage in this music-loving town. The scientific journals have decreased from 82 to 75, while there are only 3 matrimonial agency papers instead of 5. There are 104 illustrated journals in Paris, 180 devoted to fashions and 8 which are solely published for the benefit of postage-stamp collectors, philately being one of the minor fads of the French capital and having many followers who go into it as a business.

The number of political papers, which approach nearest to American "news" papers, is exceeded by those relating to finance and medicine, but they have suffered less loss than most of the other classes, having fallen only from 169 to 163. There is probably not a politician in Paris who knows even the names of these 163 papers. There are only about 30 or 40 which are known to the public and have any influence worth speaking of. But the preponderance of numbers is certainly in favor of Republican institutions for of these 163 journals 122 are Republican, 31 non-Republican, and 10 without definite views. Among the 31 non-Republican papers are, however, some of the best known and most influential in France, like the *Gaulois*, which openly espouses the Monarchist cause. On the other hand, of the papers which make a special feature of politics those that have the greatest influence with the masses and are read most by the workingmen are the radical Republican publications or those avowedly socialistic, like M. Henri Rochefort's *Intran-*

sigeant, the name of which well denotes the aggressive, uncompromising character of its articles.

Outside of Paris the number of political journals bears a far larger proportion to the total number of publications than within the city, being nearly one third of the whole. Thus while in Paris there are 163 papers of this class to a total of 2,291, or only 7 per cent, in the departments there are 1,060 political papers to a total of 3,566, or 30 per cent. This is a reduction of 42 papers during the year 1895-96, the former figures having been 1,102. Law journals have fallen off still more in the provinces, the decrease being from 410 to 327. It is a singular fact that all the other classes of papers in the departments have increased, the total gain in one year being 305, from 1,874 to 2,179 publications.

Besides law and politics, the departments have 377 journals devoted to agriculture. There are 304 religious papers, Catholic and Protestant—nearly five times as many as in wicked Paris, seemingly corroborating the assertion that most of the religion of France has deserted the city for the country. There are 60 sporting papers in the provinces, devoted chiefly to cycling. In the larger cities which are becoming industrial centers 63 socialistic papers appear, and there are 58 papers which "boom" various watering-places, thermal baths, and similar health and pleasure resorts.

Historically the French press has had less to do with national development than that of either England or America. It has always been in a condition of tutelage, under the eye of the government for the time being, forced to adopt its views or be suppressed, and sometimes subsidized and bribed to flatter the powers that were while it lulled the consciences of the people into a feeling of false contentment. Though not now paid regular bribes by the administration of the government, as in the days of the Second Empire, there is no doubt that a good deal of the secret service money finds its way into the hands of journalists favorable to the party in power in the ministry and some of it occasionally into the

hands of opponents in an endeavor to have them mitigate their attacks. The colossal Panama scandals were largely concerned with the newspapers. Thus the French press has never had a chance to grow with a sturdy, independent growth. It is still in its childhood and, in spite of telegraph and railway, has scarcely reached the development of American journals of a hundred years ago.

The oldest paper in France is the *Journal des Petites Affiches*,² founded in 1612, which is solely and purely an advertising medium for the reception of wants and notices of all kinds, which are printed on one side of a large blanket sheet and stuck on walls and fences like a bill-poster. It has grown very much larger and richer in its 284 years but has not perceptibly changed its character and hardly deserves the name of a journal. Next comes the *Gazette de France*, a Monarchist paper, founded under Louis XIII., which is in its 267th year. Then there is a long step to the *Journal Officiel*, the *gazette nationale*, founded in 1789, which now exists under the name of the *Moniteur Universel*. The *Journal des Débats* is also 107 years old; it is an evening paper now but before January 1, 1896, was a morning paper with a supplement published every afternoon. Its politics are of a mild kind and it is printed on light pink paper. It is an eminently respectable, dignified, and high-toned paper, filled with interesting literary and controversial matter but rather slow from a news point of view. The *Constitutionnel* comes next to the *Débats* in age, having been founded in 1815.

The *Univers* follows with 75 years; it is the leading conservative Catholic paper, was for a long time edited by the late Louis Veuillot, and has recently absorbed the *Monde*.³ The latter was founded in 1860 in order to replace the *Univers*, which had been suppressed by Napoleon III. Seven years later the *Univers* was allowed to reappear but the *Monde* continued to be published, being regarded as the organ of the archbishop of Paris. After Pope Leo had declared in favor of the French Republic the editor of the *Monde* remaining a Mon-

archist that paper passed into the hands of the Abbé Naudet, who gave it a more liberal character—which occasioned frequent attacks by the *Gazette de France*—and conformed its policy to that of the pope. The *Univers* finally followed suit in its support of the Republic, which caused a split among the editors and the foundation of the *Vérité*,⁴ a religious and Monarchist paper. This little bit of history gives an insight into the evolution of the French press which shows how slowly changes are wrought.

There still exist four papers founded during the reign of Louis Philippe: the *Charivari*,⁵ 64 years old; the *Presse*, 62; the *Siècle*, 61; and the *Patrie*, 56. The *Pays*, which for a long time bore the subtitle *Journal of the Empire*, was founded during the Republic of 1848. It is really therefore only 48 years old, although it claims to be in its 51st year because its series of numbering the daily issue has been changed two or three times, on each occasion starting a new year.

The *Figaro*, which is the best known paper outside of France, was founded in 1854. Its circulation is not very large but it makes up in quality for what it lacks in numbers, being read in every embassy and by every diplomat in Europe, Asia, and North Africa and wielding an immense influence. It has a fine suite of offices, including a reception hall where it gives dinners, balls, and concerts in honor of royal or imperial guests or distinguished visitors to Paris whom it induces to call and see the paper, frequently printing a special edition of a few copies in presence of the stranger, in which he will find some little complimentary notice about himself.

It has a *salle d'armes* or hall wherein its editors practice fencing, as every French newspaper man is supposed to be ready to answer with his sword for any statements he may make in his articles. Dueling, however, is visibly decreasing in France, there being not half as many "affairs of honor" as there were ten or fifteen years ago. And at least three quarters of those that do take place are of the "fake" order, arranged beforehand between the principals

and the seconds. The parties fire in the air or one slightly scratches the other's hand, "honor" is declared satisfied, they shake hands, and the deadly combat ends in an amicable banquet and the advertisement and notoriety of all concerned. Once in a while, however, a man is killed by accident, like Harry Alis, who in making a forward lunge was run through by his adversary's foil. Still rarer there are deliberate murders by the provoking party. The *Figaro* with its reception hall and *salle d'armes* has the ideal quarters of a French newspaper.

After the *Figaro* came the *Monde* and then the *Temps*, an afternoon paper which was founded in 1861. The latter is in many respects the best newspaper in France, giving at least two columns of telegraphic news, a couple more of French political and departmental news, and about the same space to city items. In its leading article it always tries to treat of the news of the day and during the sessions of Parliament publishes a supplement late in the evening called the *Petit Temps*, giving the debates in the Senate and Chamber of Deputies. In respect of circulation the afternoon papers are as much read as those of the morning and have quite as much news. After the *Temps* come the *France*, which is 35 years old; the *Liberté*, 30; the *National* and the *Soir*, 28; and the *Rappel* and the *Officiel*, 27 years.

To this same period, the last years of the Empire, belongs the foundation of those journals called *la petite presse*, printed in much smaller forms than the blanket sheets like the *Temps* or the medium-sized papers like the *Figaro*. They were formerly devoted to local scenes and incidents which the French call *faits divers*, but to-day are only distinguished from their larger contemporaries by their size. Indeed the *Petit Journal* is quite as good a newspaper as the big ones. It is the oldest of this class, having been founded in 1863. Then comes the *Petite Presse*, formerly the *Presse Illustrée*, with its 30 years, and the *Petit Moniteur*, which is 27 years old.

In the last category of Parisian papers

are those founded during the present Republican régime, several of which, like the *Matin* and the *Eclair*, display some enterprise. Within a year of the fall of Napoleon III. there was founded the *République Française*, the *Ordre*, the *XIXe. Siècle*, the *Radical*, the *Événement*,⁶ and the *Soleil*, all expressing more or less freely political views that had previously lain dormant. Then, of the *petite presse*, there came the *Petit Caporal* in 1875, the *Petit Parisien* in 1876 and the *Lanterne* in 1877. The *Voltaire* and the *Estafette* are 18 years old; the *Justice*, the *Paix*, and the *Gil Blas*, 17; the *Intransigeant*, 16; the *Matin* and the *Echo de Paris*, 13; the *Autorité*, 10; the *Eclair*, 9, and the *Journal* and *Libre Parole* only 4 years. The *Matin* is an offshoot from the *Morning News*, an early attempt to establish an Anglo-American paper in Paris. It began printing a French edition called the *Matin*, and then died, the victim of libel suits and financial distress.

Of papers printed in English in Paris, *Galignani's*,⁷ now the *Daily Messenger*, is the oldest, having been founded soon after the battle of Waterloo. The Paris edition of the *New York Herald*, which is nine years old, is not only the best English paper on the Continent but is far ahead of all the French papers from a news point of view, beating them on their own ground and exhibiting an enterprise which would put many an American paper to shame. It was the first daily paper in Paris to publish an edition of six pages and its example has since been followed by the *Figaro*. By its special wire to London the *Herald* gets the cream of the news of the London morning newspapers twelve hours before the latter can get to Paris and distributes it all over the Continent in advance of them. The other English papers in Paris are mostly advertising sheets or hotel guides, like the *American Register*.

Most of the French journals have a *salle de dépêches*, where bulletins are displayed and a museum of relics of the paper is kept. French journalism is much more personal in regard to its literary composition than that of England or America. A large proportion of the articles are signed with the names of the writers, even when the work is more or less of a routine nature, such as the sporting or law departments of the paper. On the other hand the ownership of newspapers is less frequently lodged in single hands than is the case in America. Very many of the French papers are owned by companies or associations, while the stock of several of the best known, such as the *Figaro* and the *Petit Journal*, is bought and sold daily on the stock exchange, the quotations appearing as regularly as those of railway shares or government bonds.

The circulation of all but a very few of the Paris papers varies enormously according to the contents. If a paper contains a striking article, well advertised previously, or if its *feuilleton*, continued story or memoirs, which most of the French journals consider an essential part of their daily issue, is by some well-known author, the circulation will run up fifty or a hundred thousand in a week and drop again as soon as the special feature is discontinued. When the *Four* began publishing M. Henri Rochefort's memoirs its circulation went up fivefold, although the price of the paper had been doubled in order to make hay while the sun shone.

As will have been seen, the French press is much more concentrated in the capital than that of other European countries. In Germany, for instance, it is not the press of Berlin that has the largest circulation or the greatest influence. In this, as in many other matters, however, the French press only bears out the saying that "Paris is France."

SUNDAY READINGS.

SELECTED BY BISHOP VINCENT.

NATURE AS A BOOK OF SYMBOLS.

[January 3.]

NATURE and the Bible as divine revelations are meant to reveal. "God is Love," and it is the nature of love to declare and manifest itself. Instead of having anything to conceal, or secrets to keep, it longs to be fully understood and reciprocated, appropriated and enjoyed. This is true of our own little loves, how much more true of the perfect and unchanging love of God. The revelation of himself to all the objects of his love is the desire of the Supreme Lover. But a wise love reveals itself with discretion. Parents can make known to their children when they have grown up into manhood and womanhood many things which they could not tell them when young. In like manner the Divine Father, whose love is infinitely wise, gives us revelations of himself and his purposes according to our capacity to receive them. Therefore he conceals even while revealing, because it is impossible for finite beings to receive all at once the communications he is willing to bestow.

The secrets of God are the wise reservations of love. For instance, he did not tell Adam and Eve in paradise that he knew they would fall into sin, and that he had already provided a Savior. These were facts, for he sees the end from the beginning, and Christ was the Lamb slain in the divine purpose "from before the foundation of the world." But to have revealed these facts before the fall would not have been a blessing but a curse. It was soon enough to announce a Savior from sin when the transgressors knew by painful experience what sin really is and also something of its miserable consequences. And from then until now the revelations of God have been gradually developed, as men were morally prepared to receive them.

The law was given by Moses, and then

the grace and truth of the Gospel came by Jesus Christ. He was the Great Revealer, but his gospel was progressive, and even at the close of his earthly ministry he said to the disciples, "I have yet many things to say unto you, but ye cannot bear them now; howbeit when he, the Spirit of Truth, is come he will lead you into all the truth." Every secret in God is a secret to be revealed according to our ability to receive it, and that ability will unceasingly and everlastingly increase, for our development shall be eternal.

Nature is a divine revelation, but she is full of secrets—secrets waiting to be known. For many generations she concealed laws and processes which science has discovered and which are now familiarly and generally understood. The children in our schools are acquainted with facts and phenomena in the material world of which even the wisest of Grecian philosophers were ignorant, and yet much as we have learned we know but little compared with what the coming generations may discover.

Though nature is full of mysteries, yet to the earnest and persistent student of her works and ways she freely yields up her secrets, and every revelation disclosed is a blessing to the race. "The works of the Lord are great, sought out of all them who have pleasure therein." The more they are humbly and patiently studied the more fully will the secrets which still lie hidden in nature's bosom be discovered, appropriated, and applied, and their issues become the common inheritance of humanity.

[January 10.]

AND as it is with nature, so it is with the Bible. It, too, is a divine revelation, a far higher and grander revelation than nature, because it is a revelation of redemption and restoration to fallen humanity. And just because it is a revelation it has no secrets in it. Everything it contains is meant to be

known. And what a revelation it is! By it the mind and purposes of God in relation to guilty sinners are brought clearly into view. This revelation was not given in suns and stars, flowers and fountains, like the volume of creation, but in simple human language, which is now printed in our own mother tongue. It is a revelation of love, being a revelation of God, for "God is Love." It makes him known unto us as our Father, who delighteth in mercy, and "with whom is plenteous redemption, that he may be sought unto."

And yet, this revelation conceals. It hides while it unveils. Ah, how little of it is understood! In the earnest pursuit of material good and earthly pleasures multitudes of professing Christian people have neither time nor inclination to "compare spiritual things with spiritual," and "follow hard after God." Their life of faith and love may be real, but it is not strong, and little wonder, for it is very poorly nourished with the bread of life which came down from heaven. Christ is that bread, and men eat of him only by appropriating the truth of the Gospel.

To do this needs a great deal more than the hasty reading of a chapter now and again, or a critical hearing of sermons from selected texts. The Sacred Word is a deep mine which yields its most precious treasures only to the earnest and persistent digger, who gathers up all the faculties of his mind and the affections of his heart and concentrates them patiently and steadily upon the truth that he may make it his own possession for spiritual ends and practical uses. Those who fail thus to act know only the rudiments of the doctrine of Christ, and even these in many cases very imperfectly. They are wholly ignorant of "the deep things of God," and know nothing by actual experience of the delight of spiritual discovery.

Many apprehend in part the letter of the Word who know but little of its spirit. And why? For three reasons at least. First, because they are more familiar with the writings of men than with the revelation of God. The daily newspaper is read with

far more eagerness, zest, and practical application than the Word of the Eternal. Second, because they neither habitually seek nor obtain the help of the Holy Ghost to understand the truth as it is in Jesus; and as spiritual truth can only be spiritually discerned no one can thus discern it who is not taught by the Spirit. Third, because the truth already made known to them has not been translated into action. Truth is revealed not merely to be known, but practiced, and only those who give it embodiment in word and work can really know the meaning and value of the truth.

Experimental knowledge is the only really vital knowledge in the spiritual sphere. Take note of that. But a reverential love manifests itself in obedience, and a loving obedience is rewarded with revelations.

"He that hath my commandments and keepeth them, he it is that loveth me; and he that loveth me shall be loved of my Father, and I will love him, and will manifest myself unto him." Love delights to obey, and in order that its obedience may be intelligent it must learn of Christ. "Learn of me," was his own gracious invitation, and this we are able to do only by receiving Gospel truth.

[January 17.]

NATURE is a great embodiment of divine wisdom, a glorious manifestation of divine goodness and love, a sublime revelation of divine mind and will. It is the purpose and desire of the great Revealer that men should read and ponder, understand and appropriate, apply and enjoy his embodied thoughts, that thus they may be spiritually enlightened and educated and brought with ever-increasing fulness into harmony and oneness with himself.

But God's thoughts as revealed in nature appear very differently to different men. The ox feeding in the meadow discerns not the beauty of the flowers growing among the grass, and never stands to contemplate and admire them; it has appetite for food, but no soul for form or color. And thousands of human creatures, alas! are only animal men who have little or no regard for

anything above the lowest physical enjoyments. The wondrous works of God are not wonderful to them. They excite within them neither delighted surprise nor thoughtful admiration. Their minds are imprisoned in ignorance, and their degraded souls have but little moral sensibility. They do not recognize God's thoughts in natural things.

There are others who, though comparatively ignorant and thoughtless, are neither brutified nor foolish. They retain in larger or smaller measure an intellectual and moral susceptibility, to which the manifold charms of the natural world successfully appeal. As they gaze upon the star-spangled sky in a clear winter night, or on the flower-gemmed earth in the season of spring, or on a wood in the fulness of its summer foliage, they are impelled admiringly to exclaim, "How lovely!" And in some dim, bewildered way they may even think of God for a moment, the beauty and beneficence of whose works have thus transiently impressed and pleased them.

There are others whose minds are active and earnest, and whose feelings are gentle and refined, to whom the ever-changing scenes of nature are a constant joy, and who eagerly desire to learn the lessons she is always ready to impart. But the truths she reveals to them are determined by their own capacity and condition, spirit and purpose. It may be they come to her as artists, merely to observe her varied forms and hues, and be taught how to mingle the colors aright which they wish to put upon canvas. Or they may come to her as poets, not only to admire the beauty of her countenance and the perfect pattern of her ever-changing dress, but also to study her constantly varying moods and manifestations that they may faithfully describe in tuneful words all her wonderful works and ways unto men. Or they may come to her as philosophers and scientists, not so much to see and admire the beauties of her visible phenomena as to study the hidden operations out of which all these beauties have been evolved.

But all these, if they are only natural men, are still in the outer court of the God-built temple of nature, and have never entered

within the veil to behold the Shekinah of the divine glory. They do not possess the inward and spiritual vision, by which alone divine and eternal realities can be seen typified and symbolized in material things. As we have once and again asserted, it is only the spiritually-minded man who can read and interpret nature spiritually, and even he is able to do so only in proportion as he studies her in the light of the Bible and regards her as a great book of symbols revealing the mind and will of God.

In other words, none but the earnest student of the written revelation can truly interpret the teachings of the great revelation of creation. He learns to see in all her changeful phenomena and changeless laws far higher beauties and greater marvels than are visible to the artist and the poet, the philosopher and the man of science. They have only physical sight and intellectual insight, but he obtains, and with ever-increasing insight, the spiritual and profoundest apprehension of created things.

He looks out from the center of things toward their illimitable circumference, the universe presents itself to him in a new light, and he is able to regard it with a new joy. Nature thus becomes a great book of symbols, full of sublime revealings and harmonies, all of which when apprehended tell him exactly the same ultimate facts and truths which are declared in the Bible.

[January 24.]

NATURE is a work of art, and the Lord God the great Artist. All other artists are only copyists of his works and many of them, alas! are very inferior copyists. They see only the face and form of nature, or at best her soul in a measure, but few of them have obtained a glimpse of her spirit, and are therefore unable to represent her hidden ideas in pictures they make of her visible forms. If an artist is to make a correct and really valuable portrait of any person he must not only paint the form and features but also give expression in these to the spirit of the man, or, in other words, to his disposition and character. In like manner, if he is

truly to represent the objects and scenes of nature he must put into them an expression and revelation of the divine thought and purpose of which these are the embodiment.

But how can the spirit of nature be apprehended by a merely natural man, or her hidden meanings and purposes brought into view by one who is not acquainted with the mind and will of God? The universe is a revelation of him and also of his purposes in relation to humanity, and he only who truly knows God, by loving him and apprehending something of his intentions toward our race, can be a great artist and attain through his work an earthly immortality.

The universe is also a sublime poem—the beautiful and harmonious utterance of the divine mind and heart. As music is the poetry of sound, so poetry is the musical utterance of thought and feeling—the happy union of soul and language. God is the perfect Poet, and all human poets only imperfect imitators.

In writing of nature the most of our poets have spoken only of her visible appearances and the operations of her laws, and of these chiefly in relation to the ordinary social life of mankind. Very few of them—and even these comparatively seldom—have passed through her form and mind to her hidden heart, and unveiled the moral meanings and spiritual purposes of her laws and phenomena in relation to the higher nature and eternal life of men.

The highest kind of poetry must always be that which gives expression to the sublimest thought and purest feeling in appropriate, rhythmical, and beautiful language, and which reveals most clearly and fully the unity of all truth and the ultimate purpose of divine revelation. This is the poetry which shall live, and help humanity most effectively in its onward and upward course toward the goal of moral perfection and an immortality of blessedness and power.

We are deeply indebted to the poets and poetry of past times. In poetry some of the greatest souls who ever lived have poured out their richest treasures; in poetry the noblest genius has winged its loftiest flights, and in poetry the thought-wealth and love-

wealth of the world have been expressed and embodied, so that men and women everywhere may now appropriate their enduring riches and make them their own forever.

But the facts, truths and moral beauties of relation and comparison which lie hid in nature, Scripture, and humanity, have not all been gathered up by the poets of the past. The greatest masters of song are yet to come, and when they do come they will unfold in tuneful thoughts and words the harmonies and beauties of nature, the spiritual teachings of the Bible, and show their perfect adaptation to the manifold necessities of humanity, and also the entire fitness of both divine revelations in their union and unity to be the best of all lesson books in the school of Jehovah-Jesus, who was and is and ever shall be the greatest Teacher of our race.

[January 31.]

AND if all this be true of the artist and the poet how much more of the preacher! It is his great mission to proclaim a glorious Gospel of spiritual truth for the saving and sanctifying of men—good news from the Divine Father to his alienated and guilty children. Such a Gospel ought to be preached not only with simplicity and earnestness but also with great attractiveness and winning power. It was thus that Jesus preached it—not metaphysically or philosophically or even doctrinally, but analogically and naturally, giving the loftiest truths embodiment in visible and common objects, for “without a parable spake he not unto the people.” And even when he plainly revealed the mysteries of the kingdom of heaven to his disciples, and did not speak in parables, yet his words were almost always clothed with simple metaphors drawn from nature. Hence the perennial freshness, beauty, and power of his teaching.

He who spake as never man spake uttered comparatively little which was not illustrated by objects in the natural world. His Gospel is steeped in nature. He was constantly giving utterance to the word “like” because every material and earthly

thing was to him a symbol of something moral and heavenly. It would have been well if all preachers had more or less fully followed his method.

The perfect Preacher is a model to all preachers. Metaphysical preaching is neither food nor physic for the people; literary and philosophical preaching may gratify the intellect and the imagination, but is seldom greatly useful in the saving and sanctifying of souls, and mere doctrinal preaching is dry, hard, and husky, presenting the Gospel in skeleton to the logical understanding only. The most of men care very little for systems of theology, and least of all in sermons. But let the Gospel be preached by any one spiritually and analogically, as Christ himself preached it, and of him too it will be said, "The people heard him gladly."

Missionaries, especially, ought to follow this method. It is very difficult for a poor ignorant person to apprehend the Gospel when put before him in a purely doctrinal and spiritual form; but let the preacher link the truth to its symbol, with which his hearer is familiar, and the truth in time will not only become attractive but also luminous to his dark mind. Tell him, for instance, that the Son of God is the Light and Life of the world, and he will very dimly apprehend what you mean; but tell him also

that the natural sun is his symbol, and show what its beams effect in the natural sphere, and he will soon lay hold of your meaning.

But the analogical method of teaching ought to be followed and cultivated most of all by instructors of the young. Children are keen observers, but have not yet begun to exercise to any large extent the reflective faculties. Their look is outward rather than inward. They are also instinctive lovers of natural objects, but care very little for abstract truths for the simple reason that they do not understand them. Let the truth and its counterpartal object be joined together and then they will not only listen but also apprehend and appreciate. Any Sunday-school teacher may put the matter to the test. Let him tell his scholars on one Sunday of God and his attributes in a doctrinal and purely spiritual way and then on another show that Deity and all his perfections are represented by the sky, and he will see how differently they will listen. And if he is wise he will allow that difference to be a lesson to himself. Analogical teaching is the most attractive, powerful, and instructive, and when any teacher comes to read and understand nature as a great book of symbols, analogies will always be available of a real and vital kind.—*William Marshall, of Cambridge Heath Congregational Church, England.*

SUPERSTITION AND SORCERY IN FRENCH SOCIETY.

BY EUGEN VON JAGOW.

TRANSLATED FROM "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE GERMAN "UEBER LAND UND MEER."

LIKE the hydra, whose serpent heads once severed always grew again, superstition continues to thrive, in spite of all the schools. It prevails more or less in all countries and may be recognized in its own peculiar forms, though the ever-increasing intercourse of the world seeks to represent it as fashions and customs. How distribute the exceedingly abundant material? That is the more difficult to answer as belief in superstitions rests its existence on no reasonable founda-

tions. It is a wild, confused mixture of overdrawn notions and crude truths transmitted by inheritance or from mouth to mouth.

The uncultured classes, which we will consider first, are satisfied with the old superstitions—magic, witchcraft, being possessed by an evil spirit, fortune-telling, and quackery, while the partially cultured, ashamed of their belief in the marvelous, prefer to swallow it under some scientific guise and, like persons of diseased mind,

"always fit their erratic ideas to the prevailing phenomena and themselves to their explanation of the phenomena." As Max Nordau in his ingenious "Degeneration" says, they seize with avidity upon the latest discoveries of science.

Superstition is most rampant in certain provinces of France, for instance in the Bretagne, and in Biscay, but it also throws a deep shadow in the enlightened city of Paris. In Ménilmontant, a Parisian quarter, shortly ago a miracle doctor practised her craft and treated all kinds of infirmities with a salve made as follows: "Take three dogs just nine days old and some worms gathered from red earth. Let them cook together three days." With this salve she effected actual wonders. One miracle consisted in the cure of a lackwit who afterward complained of having been cheated by her out of 1,684 francs. Other cured witnesses testified in her favor.

The police transactions and police reports show inexhaustible material for citing cases of superstition. The evil eye that can bewitch one, the somnambulist, the gipsy, play a rôle which Cagliostro, the Sicilian imposter, might envy if he had not been a contemporary of Marie Antoinette. A small farmer is aroused by vigorous knocking at midnight, like the gate-keeper of Macbeth, and a "curer" in the garb of a stroller announces to the terrified peasant that members of his family are threatened with the dreadful diseases ringworm and leprosy. The remedy for driving them away, if immediately applied, consists in smearing his wife and daughters with a magic salve while the peasant must gather enchanter's nightshade by the light of the moon. Bread pills rolled up by a dirty hand are bought for their weight in gold even by people who are poor in worldly goods as well as brains. In Havre a gipsy persuaded a gate-keeper of the outer wall that her son would return from America to murder her for the sake of getting her five thousand francs. Accordingly the otherwise frugal woman stole the money from her husband to loan it to the gipsy.

Prejudice against the number thirteen is

as wide-spread in France as in any other Christian land, even among cultured people. Victor Hugo shared it. There Friday also is considered an unlucky day, but it is a lucky day for fortune-tellers. Crossing a knife and fork together brings bad luck, so do spilling salt or driving nails in the house where there is a sick person; and even at the present day coffins are not nailed but screwed together. The perfume of a rose gives the cancer, the conjurer cannot do his best at his craft when a frog is in his neighborhood. In France rain on the wedding day signifies tears, so do pearls worn by the bridal pair. This kind of instances might be multiplied if one would notice the superstitious practises of the various classes of employments.

In France cure bungling has a much stronger hold on the people than in Germany where the so-called nature doctors practice their quackery boldly before all eyes; for while their French colleagues must work in secrecy this very secrecy and suppression by law lend them a halo of glory and an air of martyrism that attract the people.

Likewise in Paris there are many clairvoyants, they alone numbering five hundred. They have been treated mostly by the great nerve physicians in the Salpêtrière and other hospitals and thus have acquired the requisite knowledge to deceive the largest number possible of simpletons. The modern Pythia has stopped posing as living in a hole in the wall filled with owls and crocodiles and the black fowl; her "cabinet" is entirely up to civilization.

The fortune-teller approved in all conditions of life to-day calls attention to her skill in newspaper advertisements and often by way of a drawing card has a partnership with a former apothecary or medical student, by which arrangement also provision is made for women's and for men's ills. The notice reads in the following fashion: "Madame M——, celebrated diploma clairvoyant. Consultations for diseases, investigations of all sorts, advice, warnings. Madame M—— prophesies to all persons who honor her with their con-

fidence what will happen to them—what they have to fear and to hope.”

Most of these clairvoyants announce themselves as pupils of Mesmer, Postel, and Braid, of whom the former at the end of the preceding century was known as the discoverer of a fluid which he designated as “animal magnetism.” The celebrated nerve-doctor Gilles de la Tourette, who lately was entrusted with the organization of a health service too active for public exposure, spared no expenses to stenograph many oracles. He describes one event in this fashion :

“The fortune-teller is put to sleep by the powerful gestures of a hypnotist, who then announces that she is ready to communicate advice to those who desire it. One of those present steps forward and takes a seat before the fortune-teller. She gropes for him, passes her hands over him, and finally says slowly : ‘Yes, I see—Do you cough?—A little—I look into your body and see the bronchiæ, the lungs—ah, tubercles—no, not tubercles but a hollow [terror of the patient and murmurs from the audience]—You must take care of yourself—drink magnetized water.’”

Not infrequently the clairvoyant makes striking blunders. For instance one in her description of a patient’s home neighborhood, said : “I see near your house a brook—There is one?” “Undoubtedly,” the patient replied, “but what is this one called?” Here the hypnotist interrupted him severely, “Sir, people must not question the clairvoyant. I alone can put you in connection with her. You make her sick, very sick.” The questioner, abashed, kept silence, while the audience murmured disapproval of him.

Of course there is no lack of professionals who tell fortunes with cards, coffee grounds, and eggs or from lines on the hands. There are, too, many wizards and more witches who work only in the cities, while bone-setters and rheumatism-curers lay the rural districts under contribution. There are those who give away prescriptions to be filled at the apothecary’s shop. These prescriptions, it is true, are free, but one must pay to get them filled.

Let no one imagine that the above forms of superstition are unrecognized in cultured French society. It is not alone the servants and *demi-monde* that resort to fortune-tellers, but also great ladies, celebrated statesmen, and very many business men. Before the door of many a modern Lenormand, who is highly esteemed, there waits a row of aristocratic carriages. A few months ago all Paris visited Miss Couëdon, through whom the angel Gabriel spoke, mostly in verse. The only difference is that for the cultured superstition is refined, modernized. One no longer speaks of bewitchment but of throwing a spell, which may be done by means of a frog as well at a distance as by the laying on of hands. To protect one’s self against this spell one must carry a frog with him, which plays the rôle of a sacrificial lamb.

These ideas are got from the demonology of the Middle Ages, from the mistaken Buddhist teachings about the transmigration of the souls of the wicked into the bodies of animals, from the *Zendavesta* of the Persian Zoroaster. These same notions are freshened up and got out for use again as one might do with a half-worn, cast-off garment. More or less numerous occultists, cabalists, magicians, theosophists, astrologers, fakirs, and alchemists are dependent on these dismal mystical fallacies for the material in their weekly and monthly writings. The same fallacies find a noisy reecho in the daily press, in literature, in paintings, which teem with good and evil magi, astral bodies, rapping spirits, and hypocritical penitents.

A more cultured strata of superstition is found in hypnotic and spiritualistic experiments, as necromancy, table rapping, telepathy, etc.

The home of spiritualism, as it is well known to be the home of sect-founding, is America, where Madam Fox first made tables dance and walls answer questions. Thence it crossed the sea, first to England, then to France, where it was propagated with surprising rapidity, while its pestilential flocks in Germany fortunately have become scarce. We have only one, Baron du Prel, who, properly speaking, makes a business of working with apparitions, while in the

country of spiritualistic clubs, that is in France, the many theoretical and scholarly writings on this subject show how widespread it is there. Ghost stories in scientific garb, esoteric romances with their obscure meanings constitute the favorite reading of polite society.

Here evidently we have to deal with signs of degeneracy and of those degrees of hysteria whose causes are set forth exhaustively in the works of Max Nordau. When one realizes that mysticism, which depends on clouded thought, is a chief brand of degeneracy, and in its excess is a form of mind disease well known in madhouses, that hysteria possesses a certain affinity to degeneracy, one comprehends without difficulty why the so-called distinguished circles, especially in Paris, prefer to carry their pro-

verbial "search for new nerve excitations" into the to them supernaturally apparent, yet really obscure, apparitions of nerve life.

Those who wish to excuse France somewhat by saying that spiritualism comes to us from England are as mistaken as those who imagine they can verify their supersensuous interpretations of heretofore unexplained phenomena of nature by an appeal to the hypnotic experiments of the school of Charcotchen or of Nancy, in which, however, those apparitions are never considered supernatural. American spiritualism never has become naturalized in France because it has not found a favorable ground. The hint of misinterpreted science obligingly shields their predisposition for the marvelous from ridicule and moreover vindicates it in their own minds.

(End of Required Reading for January.)

LIGHTS.

BY ADA IDDINGS GALE.

THE great lights flared in the city's street
And myriads passed beneath their rays—
Not one looked up with a gladness meet
Or uttered a word of praise.

A rushlight shone in a forest drear
Mid clouds of blinding snow and sleet—
And one praised God, for its shining there
Safe led his wandering feet.

RACES AND LABOR PROBLEMS IN CALIFORNIA.

BY GEORGE HAMLIN FITCH.

CALIFORNIA offers perhaps greater peculiarities in the mixture of races among its population and greater dangers in the labor problems that result from this mixture than any other state in the Union. For ten years the Chinese question was a serious menace to the industrial life of the state. Now that this troublesome question has been solved by the restriction law which forbids the en-

trance of any Chinese laborer into this country unless he bears a certificate showing that he has lived here before, we are threatened with new danger in the large and rapidly increasing immigration of Japanese.

These men are the inferiors of the Chinese in physique and in capacity for hard work, but they are ambitious and industrious and they are content to work

for about half the wages that white men demand in similar occupations. Japan is densely crowded and every country on the shores of the Pacific which offers any chance for its surplus people has been invaded. The Japanese coolies have overrun the Hawaiian Islands until now they do the greater part of the hard manual work on the sugar plantations. They have actually driven out the Chinese as small traders and manufacturers. Their cheap rice brandy, called *sake*, has become the favorite tippie of all the lower classes and in the eyes of the native Hawaiians it is preferred to the gin which for a half century was the beverage of the islands. The rapidity with which the Japanese have swarmed into Hawaii and the swiftness with which they have ousted Portuguese, Chinese, and South Sea Island laborers from the sugar plantations furnish one of the marvels of industrial colonization of the period.

Such results in less than a decade could have been accomplished only by the perfect system of coöperation that the Japanese have perfected through the centuries. When the Sandwich Island sugar planters made their demand for thousands of Japanese laborers several large trading companies in Tokyo and Yokohama sought out colonists and gave a bonus to the young people who would marry prior to sailing. In this shrewd way they secured the youngest and lustiest laborers and they bound them by the closest ties to remain in their new homes, even after the period of their five-year contracts should expire. These Japanese were shipped at the rate of several thousand every month, and before a year was ended they surpassed in numbers all other nationalities on the islands.

Of course the contract labor law forbids the wholesale immigration of Japanese into California in the Hawaiian manner; but directly by steamer and indirectly by way of British Columbia Japanese are crowding into California in such numbers as to cause fear of the formation of a great servile class on this coast, like the peons of Mexico—hewers of wood and drawers of water—who

are content with low wages and poor food and who look for nothing better for themselves or their children.

Two peculiar features of the distribution of population in California are the centralization of people in the half-dozen large cities and the grouping of large numbers in the colonies of southern California. Of the 1,650,000 that are roughly estimated in California to-day nearly one fifth may be found in San Francisco, and it is no exaggeration to say that a trifle less than one half are gathered in cities of over 8,000 inhabitants. An approximate estimate of the rural population in the country and in towns of less than 8,000 is 800,000.

This centralization is due to the influence of large landholdings and to manufactures. It is only within the last fifteen years that the colony system has become so general as to build up strong communities of small landowners. Before that time wheat was the staple crop and the wheat ranches, like the bonanza farms of Dakota, spread over scores of square miles, and single fields were larger than the greatest farms of New York or Pennsylvania. Originally measured by the Spanish league, the equivalent of three English miles, these great cattle ranches were not subdivided when the growing of grain on the fertile portions proved more lucrative than the raising of stock. In the two main interior valleys harvesting is done by the most improved machinery. Only the heads of the grain are cut off, and the great machine, which reaps, threshes, winnows, and sacks the grain, moves across miles of waving wheat and barley, leaving behind long rows of sacks that are gathered up and hauled to the nearest railroad.

For years the immense interior valleys of California were regarded as unfit for anything except the growing of grain and the breeding of cattle and horses. The long dry season began in May and ended in November. During all this time scarcely a drop of rain fell; the ground was baked to the hardness of brick and all farming operations, when the harvest was over, were deferred until the coming of the first

winter rains. The country looked then very much as it did when Richard Henry Dana saw it, before the American occupation was imagined. Hides and tallow were then the only exports of the easy-going Spanish-American families that had parceled among them the vast Mexican territory of California.

But all this was changed when it was found that, without irrigation, most of the land in central and southern California would produce the finest fruit, if properly cultivated. The secret lay in keeping the surface free from hardening by repeated cultivation. In this way a well-kept California orchard resembles a New England garden, so free is it from weeds and grass. When the soil is thus stirred by frequent cultivation it absorbs the night dews, and moisture is always found three or four inches from the dusty surface.

California has been called the Italy of America and the term is not an exaggeration, for the state produces the orange, lemon, vine, fig, olive, pomegranate, citron, and all the other fruits that are native to the shores of the Mediterranean. The climate also bears a striking resemblance to that of Italy and southern France. Here for eight months of the year are the same cloudless skies, the same brilliant sunshine as on the Riveira; and here also is the difference of summer and winter between sunlight and shade.

Is it any wonder, therefore, that of the 366,000 foreigners estimated in California to-day one half belong to the Latin race and come from Southern Europe, the land of the vine and the olive? It is these Latin people who have transformed California and given its country life and its products the semblance of Italy, while the Germans and the Irish, who equal them in numbers, have had small appreciable influence on the life of the state. Perhaps the main reason of this lack of influence of the Celt and the Teuton is that these two races crowd into the cities, while the Italians, the French, the Portuguese, and the Spanish are found mainly in the country, pursuing the occupations to which they were trained in Europe.

The French are the wine-makers of California, the Italians the dairymen, the Portuguese the small farmers and fruit-growers, and the Spaniards the sheep-raisers and herders. The Germans are largely devoted to the skilled trades, while the Irish furnish the laborers—and the politicians who have emancipated themselves from labor.

The census of 1890 gave the number of foreign-born residents of California as 366,309. The best experts declare that in the six years since this census was taken the total increase in the foreign population of the state is only 10,000. This curious anomaly is due not to any failure of Europeans to come to California but to the great decrease in the number of Chinese, which amounts to more than 50 per cent. According to the last census, which is more trustworthy than any state statistics, there were then 71,066 Chinese in California. Now the leaders of the Six Companies and the consulate officials agree that there are between 25,000 and 30,000 Chinese in the state. White men who have good sources of information in regard to the Chinese think the latter figure is accurate. Chinese merchants of San Francisco who have suffered greatly by shrinkage in their trade assert that there are not more than 10,000 of their countrymen in this city.

While hundreds of Chinese have left the state by every steamship that sails for Hong-kong, the records show a remarkable increase in the number of Japanese. The mikado's subjects were not much in evidence six years ago when the government census was taken; in fact they only numbered 1,224. At the Japanese consulate in San Francisco in 1895 there were 5,861 Japanese registered on the Pacific coast, most of whom were in California. This registration list, however, does not include the thousands who come over to Victoria and Vancouver by the Canadian Pacific steamship line and who pay no attention to registering their names at the consulate. The secretary of the Japanese consulate estimates the number of his countrymen in California at something over 7,000. C. L. Daw, deputy state labor commissioner,

thinks there are nearly 10,000 in the state. He bases his figures on the results of a recent investigation by the Commission of Japanese Laborers in the fruit-growing counties.

At present the Irish lead all other foreign nationalities in California, their number being estimated at 73,000. The Germans come next with 71,000, an increase of 10,000 in six years. The French population of the state has remained almost stationary since the last census; then there were 11,855, now not more than 12,000. The Italians numbered 15,495 in 1890; now there are fully 20,000 in the state. The Spanish consul estimates that only 500 of his nationals are in California, though the last census gave 836. The Portuguese have increased from 9,859 in 1890 to 11,500 this year. These figures are all approximate. They have been obtained from many sources, but the state, which should compile accurate returns of population and industries, does practically nothing and its few statistics are not to be relied upon.

The foreigners in California have come into active competition with native Americans in nearly every industry and often this rivalry has been attended with disastrous results. Yet a study of the various nationalities reveals some curious facts, as certain races have made a practical monopoly of several pursuits, shutting out other aliens as well as natives. To make confusion worse confounded and to complicate the labor problem so that a solution seems almost impossible the two oriental races, the Chinese and the Japanese, play an important part in the industrial economy of the state. The Chinese question is being slowly but surely settled, so far as active competition is concerned. If the present restriction law remains in force for another decade the number of Chinese left in California will be so small as to constitute no danger to white laborers. But the flood of Japanese immigrants is a distinct menace and the wonderful stimulus given to Japan by the late war will be sure to add to the number of these Asiatics who seek California as a new field of work, where wages are princely in com-

parison with the wretched pay of their own country.

Although the Chinese have invaded nearly every industry in California they have made little impression on the skilled trades. In all the cities, and especially in San Francisco, they have crowded out thousands of women and girls from factories. Now the greater part of the cigars, clothing, shirts, gloves, and shoes which were once made by white labor are turned out by Chinese operatives. Many pretentious shops which cater to the best trade have much of their work done secretly by Chinese. The dresses and underwear of women and children are made almost entirely by Chinese, while of the cheaper grades of tailor work they have a practical monopoly. The Chinese has no "nerves," and he can thus run a heavy sewing machine for ten hours a day without apparent fatigue. Given a good pattern and a little instruction and he will turn out work that cannot be surpassed by the most expert white operatives.

An example of the way a Chinese secures trade is furnished by two Mongolians who opened a factory for women and children's shoes two years ago in a narrow alley. They made good shoes to order for less than similar shoes could be bought ready-made in the stores. Now they have a large store on a main street and they make shoes for both sexes, as well as the finest custom shirts for men and the daintiest underclothing for women. They use the best materials, but as they are satisfied with one quarter the profits of their white competitors they are gaining trade every month.

The great bulk of the laundry work in California is done by Chinese, instead of by women as in most other states. This is the custom in small villages as well as in large cities. The Chinese are not clean in their personal habits but they wash clothes with less wear and tear than the steam laundries and they are very accurate in marking and returning articles. In pioneer days the Chinese worked as placer miners, but of late years they have become a power in mining, managing large companies that require big capital. In northern California

several of these Chinese companies own miles of the richest river beds. These claims they are able to work with simple appliances, but they have shown no inclination toward quartz-mining, which requires complicated machinery and larger capital. One secret of Chinese success in mining is their patience, which often brings them big rewards.

Until recently the Chinese cut no figure as large farmers and fruit-growers, but the State Labor Bureau officials declare that they are rapidly being transformed from laborers to proprietors of farms. In many cases they lease large tracts of land in the richest berry and vegetable districts and on many of these ranches white men are employed to do the plowing and teaming, the Chinese having small success with horses or mules. The Chinese will pay more rent for land than white men can afford to pay, and yet make money, because they have been trained to rigid economy and they understand thoroughly what small pieces of land will produce when heavily fertilized and thoroughly worked. Two large fruit canneries are conducted by Chinese, one in San Francisco and the other in San Jose. In the latter a number of white women are given employment. Formerly the Chinese were counted upon to pick the fruit of the state, but now they have been displaced by the Japanese, who work for less wages.

One of the curious results of the struggle for work in this state is that "Chinese cheap labor" has practically disappeared. The State Labor Bureau admits that the Chinese demand practically the same wages as white men. For domestic service they command from \$25 to \$30 a month, and at this rate they are found cheaper than women, as in large households they are able to do far more work than the strongest women. They have gone into city factories so generally that much of the rough field work which they used to perform has fallen to the Japanese, who are willing to work at about half the wages expected by the Chinese.

So far the Japanese have come into active competition with white labor only in the fruit orchards, but the signs show that they are reaching out in many directions

and that their rivalry at low wages will soon cause trouble. Nearly one half the Japanese who come to this country are in search of an education. They are told that gold may be picked up in California and hence they usually arrive with a small stock of money, which is soon exhausted. They find that it costs four or five times as much for living expenses here as in Japan and thus they devote their leisure to domestic or orchard work in order that they may pursue their studies.

But every month sees more Japanese arrive and a larger percentage of them are common laborers who enter the hop-yards, orchards, and sugar beet fields. In fruit-packing they have crowded out white men and women.

They are as quick as women and girls in handling fruit and are more accurate and steadily industrious. They practically monopolize the industry of beet pulling on the large ranches devoted to the sugar beet. Complaints of the rapid displacement of white laborers by Japanese in orchard work induced the Labor Bureau recently to make an investigation. They found that the Japanese worked under a coöperative plan and that by this means they were able to make contracts at low prices. Several associations in San Francisco are engaged in house-cleaning, dividing the profits among their members. The Japanese are doing a large trade in San Francisco in bamboo ware and matting, which are used mainly for decoration of rooms. They have cut into the Chinese trade in curios and embroidered silk garments.

Of the 20,000 Italians in California a large number are fishermen. They practically control the fish supply of San Francisco. Many are employed in market-gardening and fruit-selling, but the majority of the laborers are wood-choppers, brick-makers, and railroad section hands. They are rapidly crowding out Chinese on the railroad. In a few districts they have gone into fruit-growing on their own account but generally when they have capital they seem to prefer trade.

The Germans as a rule are engaged in

occupations that demand skill and many are highly educated. They are physicians, chemists, teachers, and merchants. Some occupations they seem to control. Brewery owners and employees, almost without exception, are Germans and they also control most of the bakeries. Of recent German immigrants a large number are machinists, blacksmiths, and cooks. The Germans show no fondness for farming, but they have a strong partiality for retail trade and more than half the groceries in the state are conducted by them.

The French resemble the Germans in their high standard of education and the professions include many of their nationality. With laborers fruit-growing, especially the cultivation of the vine, is a favorite pursuit, as is also gardening. Many are small farmers and sheep-herders. The French make most of the good wine and brandy produced in the state and in the cities they do much of the high-class laundry work.

Of the applicants for positions as laborers at the State Labor Bureau more than half are Irish. The plastering, brick-laying, teaming, and similar classes of work are almost monopolized by them. They also fill the fire and police departments of the large cities. Very few Irishmen are found in orchard or common farm work.

The Portuguese, of whom there are over 15,000 in the state, are almost invariably farmers, though there are some fishermen. They are the dairymen of the central part of California and they produce a large portion of the butter and cheese. They also favor fruit-growing and vineyard work. In the mountains many Portuguese are sheep-raisers. They do much of the farm labor in some sections. They are industrious and orderly and they are always eager to send their children to school.

The Spaniards, who once possessed California, are now a mere handful, not over 500 in number. They are mainly sheep-raisers and herders and vineyard laborers. A few are engaged in general farming, cattle-raising, and fishing.

The Irish, German, and French in Cali-

fornia soon become naturalized and make good citizens, but of the Italians, Spanish, and Portuguese but few show any interest in citizenship.

With the large alien population, mainly devoted to work with their hands, it is not strange that the labor problem in California presents many difficulties. Hundreds come out here from the older settled states expecting to find wages high and work easy; many are attracted by the climate and, though broken in health, count on getting light work to maintain them. The result is a great glut in all classes of unskilled labor and constant additions to the army of tramps, who find it far easier to live here than in many eastern states. To all these classes must be added the incompetent, who drift to the Pacific coast as a last resort, and the criminal, who seek it as a convenient refuge from which they may fly to lands where extradition is not in force.

California is a state of such enormous resources that it has only entered upon the first stage of its development. Mining is the only industry which has been well-exploited; yet though the state has produced \$1,459,500,000 in gold and silver since 1848, it yielded last year \$17,500,000. Experts declare that with new appliances for the cheap working of refractory and low-grade ores California will soon lead all the states in its product of precious metals. In manufactures, which employ a little over one twentieth of the people of the state, the yearly product is over \$90,000,000. The wheat crop of last year was 26,218,000 bushels; beet sugar, 40,000,000 pounds; orange crop, 10,000 car-loads; wine, 15,000,000 gallons. These are only the leading products. It would take a page of this magazine to enumerate all the products that go to make up the total yield of the soil in California. The state is imperial in its resources as in its size, and when the Nicaragua Canal shall make San Francisco one of the great shipping ports of the world California will be able to maintain in comfort a population as large as that of the United States to-day.

FLAVIA.

BY ANDRÉ THEURIET.

X.

TINTIN had guessed right, the dinner at the factory was not uproarious. Numa and my father came to table with a preoccupation which was born of their morning conversation. You could feel that they didn't want to speak of them before Flavia and myself, but their minds were still meditating on the serious topics they had just discussed. They talked but little. Madame Lucia, whose vanity had been bleeding for months, had become touchy and easily irritated. Her state of mind was verging toward bitterness and this bitterness tinged her every word. Flavia, on her part, shut herself up in a sad stolidity. She scarcely ate anything, her glance wandered vaguely about, her mind was busy somewhere else. I too became affected by the common depression and constraint, and with crestfallen looks was taking part in that Christmas reunion, which bore less resemblance to a holiday dinner than a funeral feast. In spite of her absent-mindedness Flavia finally noticed my shamefacedness and took pity on it. As soon as the cloth was taken off she put on her hat, wrapped herself up in a thick woolen shawl, and proposed a walk outside of the village.

Although the sun was shining on the white ground it did not succeed in warming up the air, and a northeast wind was blowing that fairly pricked your skin. We couldn't think of taking our way through the footpaths that ran along in the woods; we would have sunk up to our knees in them. We had to satisfy ourselves with following the Récourt turnpike, where pedestrians and carriages had packed the snow down hard and made a road we could walk on.

The cold was keeping people indoors before their fires. We met no one in the street. The two rival taverns, facing each other, were filling up with the noisy mirth of their customers. Once outside the village we

were surrounded by a solemn stillness. You could no longer even hear the cawing of the crows. Only from time to time a sharp dry noise would suddenly ring out from the wooded marshes that fringed the road on the right. It was an overweighted branch breaking with a crash under its burden of snow. The road went up, went down, went up again to the opening of the Benoite-Vaux gorge. It was bad walking, so we went along slowly, speaking in an undertone as if we were afraid of disturbing the deep silence of winter. Although that walk with Flavia restored to me a little of my spirits our conversation languished. I didn't know what to say. I saw my friend a prey to such gloomy desolation that I feared to increase her sorrows by making any allusion to her father's troubles, or to what I had learned from Tintin on our way to the Fosse-des-Dames. Fearing to let some awkward expression escape I limited myself to ordinary remarks on the temperature and on the thickness of the strata of snow. My only way of showing sympathy consisted in occasionally pressing Flavia's hands, under the pretext of assuring myself that she was not too cold.

Sad and silent we walked along with heads cast down, looking at the fine imprints left by the birds on the white margins of the roadside. Now and then a wagon would pass by with its lading of men, women, and children, muffled up in woolen cloaks and going to the festivities in the neighboring village. Their red faces were beaming in spite of the frost, their eyes were shining, bursts of laughter were coming from under the canvas roof, and that coarse peasant joy made us still more gloomy and more silent.

As the sun was setting we reached the top of the slope where the road goes down toward Récourt. The sky was now a pearly gray. A lilac tint froze the snow. Through

the skeletons of the trimmed-up poplars, where magpies' nests were making black spots, we could see the vapory houses of Récourt, topped by fleeting streaks of smoke, and the snow-capped mill in the foreground. Flavia had stopped, and she never took her eyes off that square house whose windows were lighted up by the last rays of the sun. That mill recalled to her too sweet and too bitter memories. She could not endure the sight of it for any length of time, but turning quickly around murmured:

"James, we must go back. Night is coming on."

She started off so swiftly that she came near falling down on the frozen roadway.

"Lean on me," I said in my most tender tone, putting my arm near hers.

We crowded close together, and it put a little balm in my heart to feel myself so near her. Night falls rapidly in December. When it was entirely dusk she bent her head toward me and asked,

"Did you meet Tintin, then? I saw you two in the path leading to the Fosse-des-Dames. You were right in making up with him. Quarrels never lead to anything good."

"I didn't make up with him!" I energetically protested. "I detest him and his family, which behaves so badly toward you."

"You don't need to take up our quarrels. Besides, all that is ancient history."

"Ancient history!" I cried out indignantly. "They are wicked people and even to-day they think of nothing but worrying you. Ah! Flavia, if you only knew, if you only knew!"

"Well, what?" She quickly answered. "What new thing have you found out?"

"They are on the best of terms with Paul Saint-Vanne, and have invited him to take his midnight supper at their house."

"I knew it," she answered, letting her head droop.

She relapsed into a profound silence, which lasted until we entered the village.

The country was now no longer mute. On all sides chimes of bells were ringing out announcing Christmas. The Ériseul bells were to be distinguished from the others by their joyous, silvery tones. When we

crossed the bridge over the stream opposite Nicholas Brocard's house we saw the windows of the ground floor brilliantly lighted up. The curtains were drawn, but through the panes a merry tune came to us from the piano.

"James," Flavia started to say again with a sudden shudder, "do you think——?"

"Think what?"

"Do you think—they want to marry Celenia to M. Saint-Vanne?"

I felt her arm tremble in mine—convulsively tremble, as if sobs were shaking it. A sharp point of jealousy pierced my heart once more. I saw that she had never stopped thinking of Saint-Vanne, and that she still loved him.

XI.

THE supper was as sad as the dinner, and we started for home on Christmas day itself, in the afternoon, for I had to go back to school the next morning. Nevertheless this time we did not remain long without news from Ériseul. Toward the middle of January, about Saint Anthony's Day, Numa Brocard came to us in person by the morning mail-coach. His face was even more anxious and cast down than it had been in December. After lunch my father mysteriously shut himself up with him in the study, and fire was made in the library so as to permit me to work at my lessons without disturbing them. These precautions goaded on my curiosity to a higher pitch. I felt too great a necessity of knowing what was to become of Flavia to resist my desire to overhear the secrets that were being kept from me. Making use of the rather ignoble method I had successfully employed already in the Chânois clearing, I so arranged myself as to hear everything without being seen. The library was only separated by a door from the study. I succeeded in turning noiselessly the knob of this door, and I kept the door ajar. Between me and the two speakers was only a *portière* and their voices reached my ears distinctly.

"Well," said my father, "how do you stand now, comrade? I see by your face that your anxieties have not ceased."

"They have only changed shape," said Numa. "I have indeed one weight less on my heart, for my brother has offered through a third party to buy both the factory and the dwelling-house, and employ the selling price in paying my creditors. Although the price is less than the real value of the property I have accepted it. It will save me the shame of bankruptcy. But when all is settled up I won't be worth a penny. And what then will be the situation of my wife and Flavia? Accustomed to comfort, how will they endure a life of privation?"

"They will imitate you, my good Numa, and show themselves courageous. The wound made by money is not a mortal one. Madame Lucia is still young; Flavia is not twenty years old, and the three of you can make for yourselves a happy life. Have you meditated on my proposition? After our meeting at Christmas I wrote to a relative whom I spoke to you about, who has mines in Australia. On my recommendation he consents to take you into his office with a salary of five thousand francs, besides lodging for yourself and family. It is a position which may be very profitable in the future. Shall I answer that you accept?"

"So far as I am concerned I have made up my mind to anything. But Australia is far away! Lucia will protest loudly against the idea of expatriating herself."

"Necessity knows no law," my father quickly answered, "and you must lecture Madame Brocard. Or rather, no! Don't say anything to her yet; wait for everything to be arranged and the contract signed. When there will be no way of retreat open you will speak firmly, as the head of a family, who wishes to be obeyed. It is thus that you must deal with women. I am going to write, then, that you accept. In Easter vacation I will bring you a definite answer and will be on hand to help you make Madame Lucia more reasonable."

I heard no more. The recitation bell was about to ring and I ran to school, but during the whole hour I didn't cease to think of the sad secret I had overheard, so that my numerous blunders resulted in my copying a hundred lines of Homer after class.

It was practically decided, then: Flavia was going to leave her native land. In a few months I should see her no more. Thousands of leagues, an immense extent of sea were to separate us from each other. I involuntarily thought of Bernardin de Saint-Pierre's story, and I put myself in Paul's place, gazing after the departing vessel that was carrying Virginia away. A curious thing—explained by that love for the unexpected and dramatic which is at the bottom of the human soul, especially the souls of children—a curious thing it was to find myself at first less overwhelmed than I should have thought by the perspective of that separation. There was something romantic about the affair that excited my imagination. I said to myself that yonder, on the shores of Australia, Flavia would forget Paul Saint-Vanne more completely. I saw myself, seven or eight years later, crossing the two oceans in order to go and rejoin my sweetheart, approaching Melbourne on my ship with swollen sails, and penetrating into Flavia's house as the king's son did into the palace of the Sleeping Beauty.

Nevertheless this unforeseen event left me anxious and melancholy. I awaited the return of Easter vacation with nervous impatience, and my studies felt the influence of my agitated thoughts. I passed my time composing elegies on my sad destiny and Flavia's fate. I had bought an album into which I carefully copied my halting verse. At the top of each page I fastened with tender ardor the first flowers that bloomed in our garden—primroses, in memory of those that Flavia had once pityingly placed on my lips, periwinkles, emblems of sincere and inalterable love, pansies, to remind her that the best of my heart would dwell with her. I intended to give this album to her on the day of her departure. There was no more room for doubt, the separation was near. I had seen on my father's desk a letter from Melbourne which probably contained Numa Brocard's regular engagement, and I foresaw that the question of this appalling exile would be seriously discussed when we next went to Ériseul.

Easter came early that year, and we left

home the last day of March. Alas! though the sky was blue like spring and the wind had dried up the water in the ditches by the highways, that trip bore very little resemblance to the one made the previous year. My father seemed preoccupied with the news that he was bearing with him. A heavy anguish weighed upon my breast at the thought of the sorrows which awaited me at my journey's end. Scolastique alone remained indifferent, and slept as usual with her nose on her basket handle.

The day after our arrival at Chèvre-Chêne, after the midday lunch, my father went to the factory and I accompanied him. Numa Brocard was waiting for us in the yard. As soon as he saw us in the distance he grew very pale, coming forward to meet us with hesitating steps.

"The business is concluded, comrade," my father said, pressing his hand. "I have your engagement in my pocket and the money for your journey as well. Have you sounded Madame Brocard and Flavia on the subject?"

"No, I haven't dared to. Think, I beg of you, M. du Condray! How shall I give them such a blow?"

"Very well, I'll take it on myself. Go away to the village for an hour or two and when you return it will all be over," said my father resolutely.

The ladies had been informed of our call and were waiting for us in the dining room. The least details of the scene that took place in that room, which I was never to enter again, are still before my eyes. Seated near the window Madame Lucia was repairing an old bonnet, while Flavia was putting the dishes away on the walnut dresser. Above the door, in a cage filled with groundsel, two canaries were singing away as loud as they could.

"How do you do, Flavia? How are you, Madame Brocard?" asked my father, bowing to mother and daughter.

"Alas! M. du Condray," Madame Lucia answered with a plaintive bitterness, "I am like a woman devoured by restlessness and fed with humiliations. When I entered this house at the age of twenty who would

have told me that some day I would go out of it poorer than a street beggar, and without a refuge for myself and daughter?"

"Come, come, you look too much on the dark side of things. Your position is surely a vexatious one but not desperate. Take courage! Trust to your husband and your friends for getting you out of this bad fix."

"My husband? He couldn't pilot his ship when he had the means to do so. How can you expect he will get out of the scrape now that he is ruined? As for friends, so soon as you are in trouble they turn their backs on you."

"You are mistaken, madame" severely interrupted my father. "There are people who remain faithful to their friends in misfortune, and I am one of them." Numa entrusted his difficulties to me and I immediately sought after a remedy for the situation. I think I have found it. It is a position which will not give you back the fortune you have lost, yet will assure you tranquillity for the future."

Flavia had placed her back against the dresser on hearing these words, and was anxiously turning toward us her white face, in which her beautiful eyes were shining with an expression of grateful surprise. Madame Brocard had put the bonnet on her knees and raising her head was fixing an impatient look on my father.

"I have said nothing about it yet to Numa," he diplomatically added. "As I have great confidence in your judgment and force of character, Madame Brocard, I wanted to submit my proposition to your scrutiny first."

He knew the vanity and domineering temperament of that woman thoroughly, and he hoped to make her better disposed by tickling her self-esteem. He then unfolded to her with the greatest possible adroitness the offer made Numa Brocard and the advantages it presented. But when he had explained that the point was to oversee the working of a gold-mine in Australia, little Madame Brocard jumped impetuously to her feet as though she had been shocked by an electric battery.

"In Australia!" she despairingly cried.

"It's hard enough to leave Ériseul and our house, but exile ourselves to a country of savages—never in the world! I thought you were talking about a place at Paris."

"An equivalent position at Paris," my father answered, "would not give you the security and comfort you will find yonder. All your expenses will be paid during the trip, and once in Australia you will be lodged more comfortably than you are here."

"Cross the sea—go to a region where we won't know a living soul—among people whose language even we shall not understand—why, that's absurd!"

Somewhat vexed and mortified at the reception accorded his proposition my father answered in an ill-humored tone:

"Ah, madame, it is absurd to reject a serious and honorable offer on such frivolous, such childish grounds! I hope that Numa will understand his own and his family's interests better than you."

"Numa," replied Madame Lucia tragically, "will do what he pleases. But neither my daughter nor I will follow him into exile. Will we, Flavia?"

I was looking at Flavia. As soon as emigrating to Australia was broached her countenance changed. She seemed terrified and tears shone in her eyes, which were then like stars in distress in a sky clouding over with mist. I was softened by that expression of sad terror. I understood the pangs that rent her at the thought of tearing herself away in the bloom of her youth from that country where she had placed all her dreams, all her affections. I flattered myself in my innocence that I counted for something in her harrowing regrets, and I was tempted to take her part.

"Ah, sir," she said, joining her hands like a suppliant, "think, I beg of you! It is so far!"

"At your age, my child," my father answered, "distant journeys have nothing terrifying about them. When one goes away with father and mother it is all right. And then, consider that out yonder you will be able to enter on life under conditions that exist no longer here."

Poor Flavia bowed her head and leaned her arm on the dresser, weeping silently. Her tears made my heart break.

My father, with a compassionate patience of which I had not thought him capable, was beginning to reason again with Madame Brocard. He bore himself toward her as you do toward children whom you give a bitter pill covered with sugar. But the lady would not allow herself to be overcome. To all the arguments, which were presented with a persuasive eloquence, she opposed an unyielding stubbornness, and repeated with aggravating monotony, "Yes, certainly. I would consent to leave my house if it were for a position at Paris."

"At Paris," returned my father, out of patience, "there are a hundred candidates for every position, and your husband hasn't any time to wait. He must earn his bread and yours immediately. Think of that, and don't dwell on puerile notions."

"Alas!" groaned Madame Lucia, "to think that my family was the most notable and the richest in Sonilly, and then to be reduced to run about the world like the light-horse cavalry! No, I can't help it, I will never accept such a downfall."

During this debate the hours were creeping by and the April sun was already throwing its slanting rays into the room. My father, tired of beating against that mulish stubbornness, seemed on the point of throwing up the whole affair. I myself, fatigued with keeping still so long, was feeling myself a prey to a nervous unrest, a weariness of the brain, in spite of the saddening interest I took in Flavia. Suddenly the door of the room opened and Numa Brocard entered with a rush.

"Well!" he cried out, shutting the door with a slam, "I have heard fine things out there."

His tone, tremulous and vibrating at the same time, his eager face, his gleaming eyes formed such a strange contrast to our depression and the weary silence which reigned in the room that we all started up in astonishment, looking scrutinizingly at him.

"It's a very nice thing!" he continued.

"Nicholas is marrying his stepdaughter off to Paul Saint-Vanne."

"What!" cried Madame Brocard, with pursed-up lips, "M. Saint-Vanne would marry that stick of a Celenia? Oh, nonsense!"

"I was like you," said Numa with a bitter laugh, "I didn't believe in such a vile trick. But it's so all the same. The Nicholas Brocards have been working that up for a long time, but they covered their game because Celenia is not any too appetizing and the young man kicked against such an ugly wench. But notwithstanding all that they have managed so craftily, have so inveigled the boy and his relatives that they have succeeded in their purpose. The banns are now posted at the town hall and the marriage will take place in a fortnight."

"What a disgraceful act! Your sister-in-law has got all that up to worry us!" exclaimed Madame Brocard in a rage. She stopped suddenly, however, on seeing Flavia pale as wax and forced to support herself by the chair near which she was standing. "Good heavens! There's your daughter going to faint now. Your talk has upset her. Couldn't you have told the thing less brutally to her?"

She ran to her daughter, but I had got ahead of her and was holding my friend's cold hands in my own. Madame Lucia hurriedly poured some water into a glass and gave it to Flavia, who declined it with a shake of the head.

"No," she feebly moaned, "I am better. It is nothing."

"My poor Flavia!" muttered Numa in despair. Then, his heart too full to be constrained, he continued, addressing my father:

"That isn't all; Paul Saint-Vanne takes Bouchenot's law office and the young couple will set up its establishment here in my own house, that Nicholas has bought through a third party. Ah, great God! If I had only known for whose convenience they were urging me to sell it I would have preferred to cut off both my hands rather than to sign the deed."

"I will not swallow this last affront, not

by any means!" ejaculated Madame Lucia, fairly beside herself. "I will leave this house to-morrow. I would rather go anywhere, no matter where, to the end of the world. These dirty tricks have decided me. M. du Condray I accept your offer. We will start when you wish!"

"What offer?" asked Numa, who thought he ought to feign surprise.

"A relative of M. du Condray's offers you a place in Australia. Five thousand francs a year, with lodging and traveling expenses. I refused at first, but rather than die of shame here I agree to banish myself from my native country."

The younger Brocard, somewhat calmer on seeing the unexpected compliance of his wife, judged it in order to continue his pretended astonishment. He assumed a hypocritically meditative attitude, shook his head gravely, and after a short silence remarked:

"H'm! M. du Condray, it is too good of you to bother yourself about us. But Australia is far away, and the affair calls for reflection."

"I beg of you, papa," said Flavia, clasping his neck with her arms, "let us go—I beg of you! Let us go away as soon as possible and as far as possible."

"You too, my poor girl?" cried Numa Brocard, rubbing his eyes, much moved. "Well, so be it! I accept, M. du Condray."

I was dazed and pained by that sudden right-about-face. Exasperated vanity and scorned love, then, had sufficed to bring about a result that my father had not been able to attain with his wise reasoning, his affection, and his eloquence! It was humiliating for him and a little humiliating for me also. Had I not flattered myself with the thought that sorrow at leaving me had at first been the motive of Flavia's refusal? Alas! I had to renounce that illusion too. As for my father, he bore no ill will to the Brocards.

"That's now agreed upon," he said, "and believe me you have acted for the best. Now lose no time, hurry up your preparations so you may take the steamer which leaves a week from to-day."

XII.

THEY were heartrending, those preparations for the journey! These poor people, who up to that time had never left their village, except for short trips to the neighboring city, looked on this long journey to a foreign country as a terrible fall into the depths of the unknown. With the exception of Flavia they had but vague notions about the geographical situation of Australia. They only knew that it was "yonder," thousands of leagues away, at the other end of the world. The mere idea of passing weeks and weeks on the sea terrified the hearts of rustics who were solidly attached to the soil. When the question arose of choosing from the few articles of furniture they would have liked to carry all away. My father had a great deal of trouble in making them understand that they must, on the contrary, restrict their baggage to what was absolutely necessary. Madame Lucia showed herself especially stubborn. At the thought of parting from that embroidered damask linen which she used to put away so proudly in the wardrobe she burst out into lamentations. From the hour that the day for departure had been irrevocably fixed upon the younger Brocard had been under the spell of dark forebodings and emotional attacks that demanded our pity. He wandered about the house like a soul in torment. You would sometimes come upon him standing before some old piece of furniture that came from the paternal inheritance. Bowed down, with fixed eyes, he would lay his hands tenderly upon it, and his lips would half open as though to say to it farewell.

The rumors which came from the dwelling of the Nicholas Brocards added to the grief of the unhappy emigrants. At Celenia's stepfather's all was topsy-turvy. They were getting the house ready for the coming wedding. The Saint-Vannes appeared there nearly every day, and the kitchen was being worked to its full capacity. Pitiless in her rancor, Madame Nicholas Brocard showed a malignant ostentation in not letting any of the sump-

tuous festivities she was preparing go unnoticed. The reports of this rejoicing were bound to reach the Numas' ears, making them a thousand times more wretched. To be told about it as little as possible, and to avoid the torture of seeing Paul Saint-Vanne visit his betrothed, Flavia shut herself up in her room, and usually I kept her company.

Now that her departure was near at hand I could not live without her. I pardoned her for all the wounds that her obstinate attachment to Paul Saint-Vanne was causing my heart. My jealous griefs seemed drowned in the deeper sorrow which I felt in increasing measure as the hour for parting drew near. Now that her mind was made up Flavia no longer shed any tears. But the dark circles around her eyes and the sorrowful gloom of her blue pupils would hurt you. A trunk, half opened, stood in the middle of her room. Slowly, mechanically my friend would place in it the linen and the clothing she was to carry away. She would look into her bureau drawers and find little articles there she had once cherished—bits of lace, ends of ribbons, dry bouquets, modest paper fans. One moment she would take them up with the intention of burying them in the bottom of the trunk, then suddenly she would throw them into the fireplace, where a fire of branches was flaming, and the sad relics would crackle with a dry noise as they were consumed in the grate. Then Flavia would sit down, as if tired with this effort, and with clasped hands would gaze at her yawning trunk.

The village noises outside were entering through the open window—the slapping of washing paddles, the quacking of ducks in the brook. The April sun was soothing plants and trees with its warm caress, and the whistling of blackbirds was announcing the new springtime. But how different was this returning spring from the spring of the year that had passed! The gardener hadn't touched the garden beds, and the ground was overgrown with weeds. The neglected flower beds already presented that melancholy aspect peculiar to abandoned dwellings. In the far distance, toward Chânois,

you could hear the notes of the cuckoo sound again and again like the echo of vanished joys.

"There is the cuckoo singing!" Flavia murmured. "It will be perhaps the last time I shall hear him. There can't be any of those birds in the country where I am going. I am sure that the cowslips will bloom in the meadows of Benoite-Vaux. I shall not see them this year. When you go to pick some, James, you will think of me."

Then I would throw myself at her feet and lean tenderly, caressingly against her knees. However, the days flew by. We had come to the evening before the day fixed for the fatal departure. At twilight we found ourselves together in the empty, resonant kitchen, into which the closed, strapped-up trunks had been brought from up-stairs. A cart was to take them the next day to Heippes, where the travelers would take the mail. Idle, sunk down on a chair, Madame Lucia was uttering loud groans. She declared her strength was exhausted, and complained of her bad luck in a most annoying way. Flavia, occupied with putting the umbrellas into their covers, was following the coming and going of the younger Brocard with an anxious eye. He seemed extraordinarily agitated and feverish. As the hour for departure approached he showed himself more and more cast down and enervated.

"My poor linen!" groaned Madame Lucia. "I have left three fourths of it behind."

"What difference does that make?" grumbled Numa Brocard. "We shall still have enough in that country of savages. To say that I shall be buried out there! Good God! there are moments when I have a longing to end it all at once!"

He seized his hat, drove it on his head, and went out.

"James," whispered Flavia in a fright, "follow him! I'm afraid he will do some harm."

I meekly obeyed and came out on the steps as Numa Brocard was crossing the yard. The sky was clouding over, and night had come. With considerable distrust myself I went groping down the steps,

and followed close in the footprints of my sweetheart's father. I stole along behind him, but still kept myself in the shadow of the convent wall. I soon distinguished his long figure near the brook. It crossed the bridge and turned in the direction of Nicholas Brocard's house.

"What does he intend to do?" I asked myself. And my heart leaped in my breast.

The driveway gate was open. Through the great arched door you could see the front of the house, back in the courtyard. All the windows of its ground floor were lighted up. From time to time noises of dishes, rattlings of stew-pans would come from the kitchen, while in the direction of the parlor windows you could hear the buzzing of voices, and at times great peals of laughter. I remembered that just on that night the Nicholases were celebrating the signing of the marriage contract, and my anguish increased at the thought that in his despair the younger Brocard was intending perhaps to trouble the merrymaking by some outbreak.

He had crossed the porch and with rapid step went and knocked at the door of the vestibule. A servant opened it, after a moment, and Numa murmured some few words in her ear. Then the door shut and Flavia's father, taking some dozen steps backward, stood with crossed arms, his face turned toward the illuminated room, in the attitude of one who waits. I crouched down in a corner and waited with him.

In the yard three cabs and a carriage, in which the guests had been brought, doubtless, were standing, shafts in air, under the cloudy sky. Within the house happy voices were buzzing louder and louder. There was a moment's calm, while the servant was delivering the younger Brocard's message. Then the joyous uproar began again. The delay seemed cruelly long to me, and must have been much more so for the unhappy Numa.

"What is going to happen?" said I to myself.

Finally the outside door creaked on its hinges. A human form, tall and stout, stood out against the luminous arch, and I

recognized Nicholas Brocard. He shut the door behind him and risked a few steps into the yard. His eyes, that were still full of the light of the vestibule, had difficulty in piercing the darkness.

"Where are you?" he asked.

"Here."

Nicholas advanced in the direction of the voice. He walked slowly, hesitating a little, like a man who fears some ambush or importunate solicitation. He stopped short some five or six steps from his brother, and abruptly said:

"What's going on? Speak quickly. I have company waiting for me in the house."

"Brocard," Numa answered with a humble intonation that reassured me, "I am to start to-morrow on a long journey. I am going to Australia with my family."

"I know it. I have been told so."

"I am going far away, very far, and probably I shall never return to this country. That is why I asked to see you before going into exile, so that we should not leave each other in anger."

"I am not angry with you."

"So much the better. But I have been angry with you. While you were rejoicing we were in trouble, and that irritated me. Up to a moment ago I bore you a deadly hatred, and I came here with my head full of angry thoughts. But when I reached the front of our parents' house something soothed my wrath, my rancor fell, and I didn't have strength to go away without making peace with you."

"My poor brother!"

Nicholas' voice had softened, he seemed relieved of a heavy weight, and this relief disposed him to kindly feeling in advance.

"I pity you with all my heart," he continued. "If you had only listened to me we should be still here, both of us, as happy as pigs in clover."

"What is done is done," sighed the younger Brocard. Then turning toward the front of the house he added, shaking his head: "Ah, the old house! I shall often see it in my dreams, when I am at the other end of the world. If I could only enter it once more and bid farewell to all its

rooms it seems to me I should go away less despairingly."

"H'm! Unfortunately that isn't possible, you see, with all the people we have at our house. You mustn't grieve, comrade. Everything will turn out right after a while. When you have saved money out there you will come back to the fatherland."

Nicholas spoke quickly and nervously, with the embarrassment of a man who fears to show emotion, and who would like to get rid of a troublesome visitor as soon as possible without sinning too much against common propriety.

"I shall never come back!" repeated Numa gloomily.

Nicholas' commonplace consolations did not deceive him at all, and he doubtless understood the great haste his brother was in to dismiss him, for he moved slowly away.

"You know," the elder went on, showing him out with his hand on his shoulder, "if you need a thousand franc note you mustn't be bashful about it; I am at your disposal."

"Thank you, Brocard, my trip is paid for and I need nothing."

At that moment the vestibule door opened and a woman's shrill voice sounded out:

"Hi there, Brocard! won't you be through soon? We are waiting for you to sit down to supper."

"I'll be there right away," Nicholas answered, and he hastily murmured to his brother: "You see they are calling me. Excuse me. This evening I am not free. Come, kiss me, my poor fellow!"

They kissed each other under the porch. Then the elder Brocard went away, whispering, "Keep up a good heart. Good-by." "Farewell!"

The door shut on Nicholas. Numa heard the happy tumult which hailed the host's return. Standing under the porch he looked for a long last time at the outlines of his father's house. Light below, dark upstairs, projecting the vague forms of its roof into the night, it was emblematic of the younger Brocard's own life. I don't know whether that thought occurred to him or not, but he suddenly turned his back, crossed the porch, and I followed him into the darkness.

Next day, at the same hour, the rending departure took place. Madame Lucia had gone ahead with the wagon that carried the baggage. Flavia, Numa, my father, and I walked along the Heippes road. When the heavy door of the factory shut behind us with a funereal noise Flavia broke out into sobs. I took her arm and led her to the street, where my father and Numa were waiting for us.

The April night was mild and somewhat damp. The ripple of the brook was heard in the darkness, like the sigh of a flute. In the ponds of the Fosse-des-Dames the frogs were croaking in chorus. Their hoarse voices vibrated, now in unison, and now almost dying away. You could finally hear but a few timid notes, and then the croakings would begin again with new vigor. Over the budding tree-tops the slender crescent of the moon was rising and you would have said it was the pure white brow of the goddess Diana herself discreetly showing itself above the coppice. The breeze of night brought us familiar odors of spring—delicate odors of violets, puffs from the willows in flower, more penetrating aromas from the blossoming cherry trees. All these breaths from the bushes and meadows increased my sweetheart's anguish, as she breathed them in for the last time.

"It's all over, all over!" she sobbed.

I drew close to her and clasped her arm more tenderly, murmuring:

"No, Flavia, nothing is ended. I love you. I shall always love you more and more. My thoughts will follow you over the sea to the very country where you are going. In three years I shall take my bachelor's degree, in six years I shall have finished my law course, I shall be a lawyer and can marry you."

She shook her head sadly and did not answer. Then I drew from under my schoolboy's frock the album I had bought for her, into which I had copied my verses.

"Here," I continued, "take this book. I have dried flowers from our garden in it, and written in it things composed for you alone. Promise me to turn over its leaves sometimes in thinking of me. In that way

the time will seem less long for you, perhaps. On each page you will find a flower of this region and a little of my heart also, that I have left there."

She took my poor album with a movement of grateful effusion, she pressed it to her breast, and close together we silently walked on to the first houses in Heippes.

Before Mangeot's tavern we found Madame Lucia sitting melancholy on a box. On seeing us she broke out again in lamentations over her ill fortune.

Suddenly a dull rumbling was heard in the distance on the highway, with a jingling of bells, and soon the mail-coach came up, sending out ahead the light of its two lamps, which looked like threatening eyes. It stopped before the inn, the baggage was lifted up and placed under cover, and then came the moment of the last farewells. Madame Lucia got into the *coupé* first. While my father was delivering affectionate advice to Numa Brocard, who was wiping his eyes with his handkerchief, I was clinging closely to Flavia, whispering to her between kisses: "I love you. Promise me you will wait. I will go to Australia and get you as soon as I can!"

The coach door shut, Vautrin got up on his box by the side of his wolf-dog, and in the midst of snappings of his whip the heavy yellow carriage buried itself in the darkness, which was relieved for a moment still by Flavia's white handkerchief that I could distinguish fluttering outside the *coupé*.

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Alas, vanity of promises! Oh, fragility of human intentions! I have never been to Australia and I have not redeemed my word! During the first year that followed her departure I faithfully thought of my sweetheart. The letters that reached us from Melbourne were like bell strokes sounding sweetly in my soul. I don't know which one got weary first. The correspondence gradually languished. At first we wrote to each other every month. But beginning with the second year the letters became less frequent. They arrived only at New Year's or on our birthdays. Then finally we stopped writing, and forgetfulness slowly did its work,

and fatally. I got my bachelor's degree, studied law, was admitted to the bar. Other affections, less sincere and less pure, came to lodge in my heart. Just as the wind scatters the clouds, so the whirlwind of life blew upon the generous resolutions of my youth and left of them not a vestige. My father had been appointed judge at Nancy, we had sold Chèvre-Chêne, and heard nothing more about the Brocards. I never knew what became of my little sweetheart. The memory alone of that first love has remained with me—a love that has the freshness of a spring bouquet, and its short life also.

(*The end.*)

HOW THE GOTHENBURG SYSTEM WORKS.

BY F. C. BRAY.

PERHAPS all American temperance folks are not quite ready to agree with John G. Woolley, the Christian Endeavor orator, who styles the Gothenburg system as "the old perennial harlot coming in the garb of a Sister of Charity." For the United States Brewers' Association in national convention last year declared that "the Gothenburg experiment is politically, morally, and financially a total failure, productive only of lawlessness, riots, and rebellions"; and such a declaration from this source is more than sufficient to recommend the system to some people, on the principle that what liquor dealers hate temperance forces are pretty safe in indorsing.

The brewer's dictum illustrates the confusion existing in the popular mind as to what the system really is. It also points out the antagonism that may be expected from organized greed to any scheme involving state control, like the South Carolina dispensary system, for instance. But the two are different in more respects than in name. The Gothenburg plan is essentially a change of the licensing system only, while the dispensary licenses nobody. Both profess to seek the elimination of private profits. The dispensary system does that completely, whatever else may be said about it; the Gothenburg system does it partially. Of course the brewers of the United States want no interference with their profits in any way, shape, or form. Hence their reckless general denunciation.

Sweden to-day deals with the liquor

traffic in five ways: (1) local option; (2) the Gothenburg or *bolag* system; (3) state supervision; (4) licenses at auction; (5) free shop trade. It is preferable to reverse this order in learning how the Gothenburg system works.

Gothenburg, a city of about 100,000 inhabitants, is the typical town for study in this connection, since the *bolag* or spirit company system which was started there has been given thirty years of trial under probably the best management shown in any of the Swedish towns, so that it has become more widely known by the name of the town than by the distinctive term *bolag*.

The startling fact is that drunkenness is steadily increasing in Gothenburg. The question naturally arises, Is this the best result that years of the Gothenburg system can show for itself?

In this city of 100,000 there were last year about 750 places where beer was sold and with which the *bolag* or Gothenburg Company had nothing whatever to do. All authorities seem to agree that the increase of drunkenness is to be accounted for by the increased consumption of beer, furnished by these hundreds of shops together with the *bolag* houses which are allowed to sell beer, too, under the system. The figures of the police department which has been under the same management and has been conducted on the same lines ever since the system was introduced, aside from statistics of disease, etc., are sufficient evidence on this point. For drunkenness they are as follows:

Year.	Popu- lation.	Convic- tions.	Year.	Popu- lation.	Convic- tions.
1865....	45,750	2,070	1880....	68,477	2,101
1866....	47,332	1,424	1881....	71,533	2,282
1867....	47,898	1,375	1882....	72,555	2,096
1868....	50,438	1,320	1883....	77,653	2,364
1869....	52,526	1,445	1884....	80,811	2,375
1870....	53,822	1,416	1885....	84,450	2,475
1871....	55,110	1,531	1886....	88,230	2,776
1872....	55,986	1,581	1887....	91,396	2,921
1873....	56,909	1,827	1888....	94,370	2,922
1874....	58,307	2,234	1889....	97,677	3,282
1875....	59,986	2,490	1890....	101,502	4,010
1876....	61,505	2,410	1891....	104,215	4,624
1877....	63,391	2,542	1892....	106,356	4,563
1878....	65,697	2,114	1893....	106,959	4,066
1879....	66,844	2,059			

Beer has been popularly deemed a temperance drink in Sweden, it contains so much less alcohol than the *brännvin* which had always been the national drink. *Brännvin* is distilled from grain or potatoes and contains from 40 to 50 per cent of alcohol. Their beer contains from 6 to 8 per cent of alcohol. Our beer averages about 4 per cent. The substitution of strong-beer drinking for *brännvin* drinking goes on practically uncontrolled. Shops of every sort sell bottled beer for consumption off the premises, the wagon trade is unrestrained, the number of breweries grew one third in three years (1887-91) and their annual product has rapidly increased, and neither the Gothenburg system nor local option attempts to control the beer trade in town or country. There are about 200 licensed beer rooms in Gothenburg alone, and nearly three times that number of unlicensed beer-selling places.

All licenses for the sale of *brännvin* used to be sold at auction to the highest bidder. In eleven Swedish towns that is still the practise. Five establishments in Gothenburg hold over by permanent tenure from the old *régime* and do not come under the Gothenburg Company's control. Furthermore something of the old system survives in the practise of the Gothenburg Company, which sublets 23 wine and spirituous liquor licenses to parties who cater to the better class of restaurant and hotel trade. These places are nominally under the control of the *bolag*, but the amount of control is evident from the lack of requirement that sales shall be reported. The

British chaplain is authority for the estimate that they do more business than the *bolag* houses.

For years and years in Sweden spirits had been distilled by whomsoever pleased. Every farmer could have his own potato or grain still, and the amount of *brännvin* consumed produced such calamitous results to the people and the interests of the kingdom that a tremendous agitation and severe measures against it were resorted to by the king and his advisers. Private distilling was quickly and rigorously suppressed, and distilleries under strict government supervision took their place. These distilleries may dispose of the *brännvin* in quantities of not less than 66 gallons. To buy a cask and set up an itinerant bar is not difficult or uncommon. The proceeds of the cask trade of course do not appear in the record of sales by the *bolag*.

Having thus reviewed the free shop trade, the licenses at auction, and the state-regulated spirit distilleries, one is fairly prepared to place something like a just estimate on what we know as the Gothenburg system.

The term does not properly include all these various methods of dealing with the liquor traffic. The Gothenburg system does not deal with the traffic from our point of view or under our conditions. The system was established to deal with a specific part of the traffic—the most important part from a Swedish point of view—the public-house and retail traffic in spirits. It is simply a change in the licensing system for that retail trade. Instead of selling spirit licenses at auction to the highest bidder the licenses have been transferred to a single company called a *bolag*. This *bolag* in Gothenburg was composed of philanthropic men, Dr. P. Weisलगren, president of the late Swedish Temperance (moderation) Society, and others. In 1865 the company was given control of the public-house licenses at the minimum rate of payment fixed by the liquor law. In 1874 the trade of the retailers, who could not sell less than a litre, was also transferred to the company. They

have limited the number of spirit houses to 69 and may be said to have fairly followed the lines laid down.

Note several features of the plan. It was another method of regulation and in no sense a step toward the prohibition of even one branch of the liquor traffic. It was regulation for the sole benefit of a certain class, the workingmen; the sublicenses cater to the well-to-do. It assumed that the *bränvin* traffic was a necessary evil, that the better classes could look out for themselves but that the working classes becoming paupers on the community came under another category. The purposes set forth are philanthropic: the public houses frequented by the working classes are taken from those who seek enormous sales for personal profit; real and decent eating-houses are established; all are under strict regulations as to hours, sales to minors, on Sundays, etc.; sales are for cash only; there is no competition to make drinks excessively cheap, and the company is judge of the number of such places needed. There is evident improvement for Gothenburg in this *régime* contrasted with the old plan of sale to the highest bidder.

But the philanthropic side is not the only side to the *bolag* as an institution. To take the place of the revenue which accrued to this community and province from the sale of licenses the law provides the following division of net profits: where conducted by elected committees, six tenths to the community, one tenth to the agricultural society of the province, three tenths to the state treasury; where managed by private companies six per cent goes first to the company as interest on paid-up capital, the community gets seven tenths of the net profit, the agricultural society one tenth, and the state treasury two tenths. The treasury receipts are apportioned according to population among the provinces.

Now bearing in mind also the fact that the communal voting right in Sweden depends on the amount of taxes or income—not one man one vote, as with us—it is easy to see how a small proportion of the population is willing to be relieved from heavy burdens

each year by the community's profits from the *bolag* houses patronized by the poor who have not the power to vote them out if they should wish.

The profit feature, despite the fact that its promoters sought to escape it, is a cardinal weakness of the Gothenburg system. On a capital stock of \$27,470 in the fiscal year 1892 the Gothenburg Company paid into the city treasury \$78,161.90 as fixed fee for licenses and \$109,340.08 surplus, a total annual profit of \$187,501.98. This relief fund acts as a powerful soporific upon the conscience of the community in regard to a liquor traffic which has charitable intentions and respectable connections. There are public institutions which now possess shares of the gilt-edged company stock which have been transferred to their endowment funds. The profits of the liquor companies in Sweden for the year 1890 exceeded \$1,800,000.

In practise two or three things happen: "Companies" rival each other in bidding for community monopoly. They are sure of at least six per cent, which is better than the returns from the average available investments. The law limits interest to the legal rate for the amount invested, but does not fix the amount that may be invested. The larger the investment the larger the six-per-cent income and the greater the effort to please the tax-paying community with a big seven-tenths profit. There is, in fact, both private and communal gain at stake, and the record is that no town establishing the system gives it up.

Out of 90 Swedish towns 77 have been reported as adopting the system, and the inducements under the law have made the private company and the seven-tenths arrangement the favorite instead of an elected committee and six tenths. Serious frauds in the conduct of some "companies," in bidding for the monopoly, renting city buildings, and keeping expense accounts, have been discovered. There is more apparent danger, however, of trying to increase sales in order to make a fine showing of profit to the community than anything else.

Besides the restrictive and charitable characteristics a decreased consumption of spirits is claimed for the system. There seems to be no doubt that there has been a marked decrease, but what does the claim amount to? In December, 1894, the *London Times'* correspondent found 29 places directly administered by the *bolag* in Gothenburg; 17 licenses had been granted to hotels for the better classes, and 23 had been sub-let to retail traders—69 in all, as against the 750 beer-selling places before mentioned.

The Gothenburg company's officials give figures showing a local decrease of consumption of spirits from 27.4 liters per inhabitant—men, women, and children—in 1875 to 13.2 liters in 1893. These figures represent the sales of the *bolag* and a guess at the sales of the 23 sublicensed places. At the same time the annual profits do not show any corresponding decrease. In 1875 they were \$178,357.22, in 1880, \$131,168.09; in 1888, \$195,253.46, and in 1889, the last year given in the Gould report, \$182,837.99. This may be partly but not wholly accounted for by the increase in the price of *brännvin* from $1\frac{1}{2}$ to $2\frac{1}{4}$ cents per glass. The exceedingly small estimate placed on the sales of the 23 sublicensed places which constitute one third of the whole number of company licenses must be considered doubtful, and the five permanent-tenure establishments and the cask trade are of course not included in the company's showing of "consumption."

In spite of the *bolag*, drunkenness increases. Modern temperance reformers in other countries have been fighting drunkenness rather than a particular kind of drink, and the best that can be said of conditions prevailing in Gothenburg seems to be that beer drunkenness is not so bad as spirit drunkenness.

Figures from the Royal Swedish Statistical Bureau show a decrease of the consumption of spirits from 12 liters *per capita* in 1875 to $6\frac{1}{2}$ in 1892 throughout Sweden. This decrease has been erroneously attributed to the Gothenburg system. It should be remembered that the companies deal with the spirit traffic in towns only. The rural districts took advantage of the local option provided by the law of 1855, and by that means have obtained practical prohibition of that traffic in the country. Inasmuch as the population of the rural districts is five times that of the towns one must give local option and not the *bolag* the greater share of credit for a decrease in spirit consumption. It might be well also to allow something for the influence of temperance agitation.

The new law of 1895 diverts certain percentages of the immense profits of the companies to the general government, and by way of the most pertinent criticism of the system, after twenty years of trial, provides a chance for improvement of conditions by giving all men and women over twenty-five years of age the opportunity of voting out the traffic by local option.

THE ACTUAL JOHN BROWN.

BY AUSTIN M. COURTENAY, D. D.

THE dominant note of our literature is sincerity, veracity, genuineness in motive, and naturalness in form. This is obvious, all the way from the morbid realism which dissects life to its most secret and sordid detail to the sane veracity which depicts life with all its mystery, pathos, and passion, as these throb deeply in the common deeds of men. This tendency,

altogether wholesome and hopeful, is discernible on all sides—in life as well as in art and letters.

It is therefore strange, to the point of wonder, that in this age there should be such a myth-growth as has covered the actual John Brown of Osawatomie with accretions of tradition, invention, perverse and factless assertion, plastered on without ef-

fective protest, so that he is regarded as a hero and martyr—the incarnation of a righteous idea—the prophet of an era of liberty—the John Baptist of a new evangel—the Peter Hermit of a holy crusade—the sublime, massive, inspired figure which stands at the opening gateways of our war, as Lincoln presides over their closure, while the new nation, baptized with blood and consecrated to freedom, advances along the path of progress.

Thus Thoreau said, "He could not have been tried by his peers for his peers do not exist."

Phillips said, "Whether that old man succeeded in a worldly sense or not, he stands a representative of law, of government, of right, of justice, of religion; and they were pirates that gathered about him and sought to wreak vengeance by taking his life."

Emerson spoke of him as "the saint whose

life yet hangs in the balance, but whose martyrdom, if it shall be perfected, will make the gallows glorious like the cross."

Sanborn said, "Lincoln with his proclamation, Grant and Sherman with their armies, and Sumner with his constitutional amendments did little more than follow in the path which Brown had pointed out."

This opinion has been accepted by some southerners as evidence that Brown was the incarnation of northern sentiment and as such began hostilities which justified secession. The Hon. A. R. Boteler says, "Then and there [at Harper's Ferry] was the first shot and the first blood, the first forcible seizure of public property, the first outrage on the old flag, the first armed resistance to national troops, the first organized effort to establish a provisional government at the South, in opposition to that of the United States, and the first overt movement to subvert the authority of the Constitution and

to destroy the integrity of the Union."

Is this opinion of Brown correct, which logically shifts the burden of rebellion from the South to the North? It obtained credence because the purity of Brown's motive, the courage of his endeavor, the pity of his death, blinded men's eyes; and then the swift shock of war, when the nation did righteously what he essayed madly and wickedly, disturbed men's minds, so that

the veritable statement of his life and death was discredited as a perversion of the slaveocracy, and then obscured even to oblivion by the shadow of the myth.

How could there be two opinions of the man, so opposite and oppugnant? It may be said that there is ground for both in the strangely blended double quality of his nature, and so both extremes are erroneous. But more likely the ultimate verdict will be that one is the solid



JOHN BROWN.

fabric of fact and the other a cunningly wrought, overlaid embroidery of fancy. Which then is the actual and which the ideal John Brown?

We must interrogate the records. And at once we discover that the declaration of his adversaries was fugitive and soon forgotten, mummied in government archives and newspaper files or entombed in that supulcher of memory which has always its resurrections. His first biographer, Redpath, was his associate in Kansas and his violent partisan, who avowed his belief in Brown's divine direction and consequent superiority to all law. Sanborn, whose book is received as standard authority, was also a comrade and confidant, whose fitness to judge the case is exhibited in this reason for not joining Brown at the Ferry: "Long accustomed to guide my life by leadings and omens from that shrine whose oracles may destroy but

can never deceive, I listened in vain through months of doubt and anxiety for a clear and certain call." Then the Concord circle, potent, almost omnipotent in literature, caught up the shriek of eulogy and gave it the credit of their great names. Such are the sources of the prevalent opinion.

Nevertheless some investigation of Brown's career, analysis of his nature, and acquaintance with the region, conditions, and actors of the tragic scenes in his life may embolden one to assert that this grotesque piece of hero-worship is really the canonization of massacre, the deification of fanatic madness.

What are the essential facts? They may be briefly summarized. Brown was a puritan of the Puritans, being fifth of the name in descent from a Mayflower colonist. In his early boyhood the family migrated from Connecticut to the frontiers of Ohio. At sixteen he became a church member, and three years later a student for the ministry, but failure of eyesight drove him from books, when he had acquired only the meagerest smattering of an education. For twenty years he was a tanner in Ohio and in Crawford County, Penn., not far from Meadville, THE CHAUTAUQUAN's home. His house still stands in Richmond township.

He failed in this business twice, as later also in the wool trade. One friend attributes his financial adversities to "his ardent and excitable temperament." They seem due rather to a defect of judgment, which was not so much miscalculation as a rash disregard of facts. Thus once in Massachusetts, as a factor for wool-growers in Ohio, he disputed with his customers about grading the staple, accused them of fleecing the shepherds, and abruptly sailed for England with two hundred thousand pounds of a consignment. He was forced to sell the cargo at a loss of one half, and it was reshipped to Boston, with mutual profit to his British and Yankee competitors. These facts are in no sense discreditable, except to his judgment.

While abroad he visited some of the famous battle-fields of Europe with the

same purpose which actuated his study of the insurrections of Sertorius and Schamyl and Osceola and L'Ouverture. We are told that from Waterloo he deduced the opinion that "the common military theory of strong places is unsound, as a ravine is in truth more defensible than a hilltop." It is delicious, this jumbling of Napoleonic strategy with bushwhacking, but it serves to gauge Brown's military genius, which his eulogist (Redpath) asserts would on a wide field have placed him among the first captains of the world.

One may therefore wonder that he passed, even among capable men, as exceptionally sound-headed. But it is not uncommon for a man of positive convictions to impress casual associates with his sagacity, especially when he is without either doubt or vanity, while in fact his judgment on an emergency, or in a scope larger than his measure, is fatally defective.

As to this, we have a suggestive scrap of autobiography, dated 1858, wherein he speaks of his early abhorrence of slavery, his determination always to carry a point, and his uniform success in his career. It was addressed to the little son of a gentleman in Massachusetts, who had supplied him with money, and one surmises that quite unconsciously he was persuading himself, and his patron, that there were auguries of success in the great scheme for which he believed himself created and called of God. In truth he needed the support of such a self-delusion, for his errant life of various trades and many failures gave no guarantee of mastery.

It is easy to read into one's memory of childhood qualities which have been developed by events. It is natural to desire thus to connect the later self with that earlier, purer self, fresh from God, by tracing pre-sages even in trivial things. And this is sure to occur in a visionary who confides in his fate and cherishes the conviction of a great destiny.

Brown was toilsomely striving to maintain his family and to guide and govern Gerrit Smith's colony of freed negroes, in the wild, cold Adirondacks, when the call came from

Kansas. He was then fifty-five years old.

He hastened to Kansas, not as a settler but with arms—as he said, “to have a shot at the South.” He engaged vigorously in border warfare, where the pure flame of his horror of slavery blazed into the baleful fire of hatred for slaveholders. He always denied that he was at any time actuated by a vengeful spirit, but he acted with the absolutism of an Israelitish judge and smote the enemies of the Lord, hip and thigh, under a divine sanction which consecrated his sword. When the other side slew it was fiendish massacre, but when he slew it was the execution of justice. It is a question of terms, the zealot being critic. In fact as one strives to explore the bloody mazes of that vendetta it seems clear that the Missouri proslavery ruffians were simply brigands, and the higher-law, force-of-arms antislavery men, like Brown, were also brigands. Of course actual settlers, law-abiding, peace-loving citizens, were drawn into the swirl of events and the innocent were victims, while the violent spirits, acting without law, against law, hindered their own cause and retarded, endangered that legal, peaceable settlement which finally made Kansas Free-soil.

Thus the Hon. Eli Thayer of Massachusetts, the organizer of the Kansas Emigrant Aid Company—of whose work Sumner said, “The state of Kansas should be named Thayer. I would rather accomplish what he has done than have won the victory at New Orleans”—says in his notable book on the “Kansas Crusade”: “He [Brown] was a great injury to the free-state cause and the free-state settlers. He wished to begin a civil war. He was a pupil of the Garrisonites and afterward their god. He never had any property in Kansas which might be subject to retaliation and reprisal for his crimes. Skulking about under various disguises and pretenses, he left the free-state settlers to suffer for his numerous outrages. At length they compelled him to leave the territory.”

Again he says: “After his midnight murders in Kansas all the people about Osawatimie assembled to express their indignation

and to take measures to bring the ‘fiends’ to justice. Here on friendly terms met the free-state and the slave-state men. In the overshadowing gloom of such terrible crime all partisan issues were forgotten. The underlying brotherhood of man asserted itself in unity against an enemy of the human race. But what enemy? John Brown.” This alludes to the Pottawattamie massacre when “three men and two boys were dragged from their beds at midnight, shot and hacked to pieces with two-edged cleavers in such a way that the work was at first reported to be that of Indians.” Brown denied participation in this act, but admitted that his men were the executioners, adding, “I would have advised it. I indorsed it as it was.” Thayer quotes Professor Spring’s “History of Kansas,” with its publication of new matter on this point, for his assertion that “no fact in history is now better established than that he [Brown] was the father of the crime and the leader of the assassins.”

It must be added that Brown protested his aversion to taking life, except in justifiable(?) attack, defense, or reprisal. It is the usual defense of bigots and tyrants to assume the sole right of declaring the *casus belli* and then deciding the rules of the combat.

The triumph of the Free-soilers in Kansas deprived the South of all hope for the extension of slavery and prepared it for secession, out of which arose the Civil War, the Emancipation Proclamation, and the new national unity. But it appears that Brown and those he represented, the Garrisonian disunionists, who have been given great credit, actually opposed the very measures which captured Kansas and attempted methods which deserve the execration of mankind.

The Harper’s Ferry invasion resulted from long cogitation of the theory that the slave system was vulnerable to attack from within. Brown believed that the negroes and the non-slaveholding whites would flock to the standard of freedom, so that “twenty men in the Alleghanies could break slavery to pieces in two years.” He said, “The land belongs to the bondmen”: “Give a

slave a pike and you make a man of him"; "Any resistance, however bloody, is better than the present system"; "It is right for slaves to kill their masters to escape."

He would proclaim liberty with the crack of the rifle, while protesting his desire that no blood might be shed. Was he fool enough to imagine that the masters would witness without resistance the stampede of the slaves and the seizure of their valuables for his war-chest? Not at all, for he carefully provided for a campaign of guerrilla warfare. That plan is curious as disclosing the crack-brained Quixotism which was masked by his serious and rigorous manner.

First he called a convention of the "friends of freedom" at Chatham, Canada, in May, 1858. It consisted of forty-three persons, all escaped slaves except the little group of white men, young, ardent, and adventurous, whom he had attached to his enterprise then but vaguely disclosed. The sessions were secret and resulted only in the adoption of "a constitution and ordinances for the people of the United States" and the election of officials under it, of whom Brown was "commander-in-chief." Redpath declares that this document will yet place Brown "first in the list of American statesmen"; and meets the charge that it indicates insanity by asserting that some mysterious passages, intelligent to the initiate, could not be elucidated without danger to secret policies and patrons—which may be dismissed as balderdash.

Its purpose was to establish a government over communities of escaped slaves in the mountains of Virginia, and southward, with provisions for all the business of society, including courts of justice, schools for children, and the observance of the Sabbath. It was to prey on the villages and farms, retreat to its strongholds, and beat off the state militia and the national troops until it had conquered its liberties. All this was to be the work of years. The slaves were to be taught manhood, first as soldiers and then as citizens. The crusade was to terrorize the South, to render slavery insecure and unprofitable, so that finally in some unexplained trans-

mogrification universal emancipation would ensue.

So absurd, so hopeless was the project that every one of his advisers protested. Even his little band, including six of his own family, encamped at the Kennedy house, near Maryland Heights, on the eve of the invasion, when he unfolded his plan, objected so violently that at last he resigned and bade them elect another leader.

But what could they do? They were little more than boys. They were ignorant. They were swayed by a dominant personality. So with their lives in their hands the twenty-one followed him in the chill gloom of that October Sunday night to attack slavery, which was heroic, but also to assault the authority of the United States, which was treason, and that at the worst possible point, strategically and politically, which was lunacy.

The execution of the plan was pitifully ineffective. The band easily entered the sleeping town, capturing the bridge, the armory, the arsenal, and the rifle works from their single guards, declaring the authority of "Almighty God." Hostages to the number of sixty were brought in from near-by farms, and with the dawn the citizens awoke to find their streets patrolled by strangely-accoutered men, who represented—what?—a strike among the armorers?—an insurrection of the negroes?—no! an invasion from the North, the power and purpose of which was magnified by fear.

Desultory firing sputtered from both sides, begun by the invaders, who acted on the idea that every citizen was an enemy to be shot on sight, and they had killed two unarmed men before reply. This continued until mid-afternoon, when militia began to arrive from Martinsburg, Winchester, and Frederick. Brown and his men retired into a brick engine-house in the arsenal grounds and were invested on all sides. At midnight a company of United States Marines arrived from Washington, under Col. R. E. Lee. After parley and summons to surrender, the "fort" was carried by storm and the war of liberation ended.

Why did Brown fail so absolutely in a plan which Sanborn persists was perfect, calculated to every contingency, "like a skilful-player on every rebound and collision of his ball?" Because he was not only oblivious but utterly careless of the terms of his problem. The valley of Virginia was the very last place for his crusade and Harper's Ferry the worst for his assault. The town was indefensible. If he wished merely to seize arms and pass on, then the territory was unsuited to his designs. There were near by no mountain fastnesses such as he imagined. There were no great plantations with masses of half-civilized negroes. There were and are no barbaric moonshiners or witless crackers such as figure in our dialect stories, and no Lagrees of the rice and sugar districts. The materials for insurrection were wanting.

There were moderate farms inhabited mostly by the old gentility, cultivated, gracious, religious, who deprecated slavery. The Jeffersonian idea of the incompatibility of serfdom in a free republic and the Whig dream of a gradual and compensated emancipation still possessed their minds. The slave was generally cared for humanely. The prevailing opinion was that slavery was an entailed evil, to be mitigated as far as possible until some way might be devised for its extirpation.

Now the invasion of this society would result in one of two things: either the bondmen would rise in a servile war whose horrors we could not imagine but for the story of San Domingo, or else the negro, scattered in small groups among the whites, timid by nature, subject by habit, and often sincerely attached to the other race, would fail to respond. The former Brown expected; the latter occurred, as might have been predicted by any one familiar with the locality. General Strother ("Porte Crayon"), who was present at Brown's capture, tells us that he reluctantly admitted he was entirely disappointed in his expectations.

Furthermore he blundered by lingering at the Ferry. From the dawn of Monday to its noon he was free to escape with all needed supply of arms, either by retreat to

Maryland and a day's march to Pennsylvania or by advance into the mountains according to his original design. There was no rational consideration for his remaining on that point of land, between two difficult rivers, backed by the town which rose steeply to the hilltop, and covered by Maryland and London Heights. It was a death-trap. And it was apparent before day, when his scouting parties came in, that the slaves would not rise. Why then did he stay? His answer is that he was unwilling to subject his hostages to hardship or their families to anxiety, or to have it believed that his designs were sanguinary. Why not then release the prisoners? His original intention was to exchange them for negroes, but this he could only do by marching to some retreat in the mountains. His afterthought was to pay their freedom for his own, as he proposed to Colonel Lee, but this was unnecessary had he escaped. His reason, therefore, was no reason. It was a fatal blunder. He said to Mason, "It is by my own folly I have been taken. I could easily have saved myself from it had I exercised my own better judgment rather than yielded to my feelings."

After capture, however, the brave old man bore himself with a dignity, gentleness, serenity, and fortitude that atone the folly of his crime, though not its guilt. That is explained—may the world be generous enough to add excused—on two grounds.

First, his morbid mental condition. Judge Richard Parker of Winchester, who presided at his trial, a man of great acuteness and fairness, a careful student of the case, firmly believed Brown to be partially insane. Beecher said, "The shot that struck the son's heart [in Kansas] crazed the father's brain. I mourn the obscurity of his reason."

On the other hand, Governor Wise declared, "They are mistaken who take him for a madman. He is a bundle of the best nerves I ever saw; cut, thrust, bleeding and in bonds, he is a man of clear head, courage, and fortitude, cool, collected, and indomitable"; and yet he adds, "He is a

fanatic, vain and garrulous, but firm, truthful, and intelligent."

His counsel proposed the plea of insanity, but Brown indignantly repelled it, addressing the court thus: "Insane persons have but little ability to judge of their own sanity. If I am insane I should think I know more than all the rest of the world. I am perfectly unconscious of insanity." He probably knew nothing of the subtler forms of mental alienation and supposed insanity to mean either idiocy or violent mania. A man may live near the borderline of sanity, with all his acts and ideas normal, except in one mastering passion or purpose, of which he is unable to judge soundly. This is often the case when there is an insane diathesis, or even a constitutional tendency to nervous instability, which may lie latent through life, or develop into hysteria, hypochondria, or monomania.

There was insanity in Brown's family. On the mother's side were numerous instances; her sister, niece, and a son and daughter of a brother were all confined in asylums. And Brown's own first and second sons were deranged. Such heredity affords a fruitful field for the growth of passionate delusions, and it is probable that Brown's long brooding over slavery developed into monomania during the exposure and excitement in Kansas.

His half-brother, Jeremiah, said: "My brother John from my earliest recollection was an honest, conscientious man. Since the troubles in Kansas I have observed a marked change. Previously devoted to business, he has since abandoned all business and become wholly absorbed in the subject of slavery. I urged him to go home to his family. He replied that he was sorry I did not sympathize with him, but he was in the line of duty and must pursue it if it destroyed himself and his family. He was satisfied that he was a chosen instrument in the hands of God to war against slavery. From his manner and conversation at this time I had no doubt that he had become insane on the subject of slavery, and gave him to understand that this was my opinion."

The evidence all points to monomania on

a subject not inherently absurd, and to a degree not destructive of general normality, so that he passed for years, and with most men, as sound, shrewd, and sagacious.

The second plea on his behalf is that in all the sane area of his nature, by far the greatest part, he was absolutely conscientious. His position is thus stated and indorsed by Redpath: "Is the Bible true? If so it follows that it is right to slay God's enemies if it is necessary to deliver God's persecuted people. In John Brown's eyes what Joshua did and Jehovah sanctioned could not be wrong. Between the command of the Lord of Hosts and implicit obedience to it he permitted neither creed nor platform, constitution nor law to intervene. Believing God to be a being infallible and unchanging, believing that he once had ordered his enemies to be smitten hip and thigh, it was a Christian act to emulate Joshua and Gideon. Christendom will yet recognize in John Brown a translation of the Old Testament, not into English words, but into American flesh and blood."

There is no question of his sincerity; but conscience is merely the motive power of moral action. It does not discriminate and determine what is right and what is wrong. That is the function of the judgment. In the judiciary of the soul the judgment issues its verdicts and conscience is the marshal who executes. If the judgment is clear and strong but conscience supine, or bribed by passion, or overawed by fear, then the man will cry in the agony of his struggling nature, "The good that I would I do not, O wretched man that I am!" If the conscience is vigorous and vehement for righteousness but the judgment weak, or partial, or uninstructed, then the man may go right or he may go wrong, only he will go all lengths; and if he takes the wrong way which seems to him right he is a fanatic, without scruple, fear, or favor—the more dangerous in proportion to the storm and stress of his moral sense.

Brown was sincere, unselfish, courageous; yes, and so were Joan of Arc, Camille Desmoulins, the Fifth Monarchy men, and the Anabaptists of Munzer.

After all one cannot deny a certain homage to the hero-outlaw, for it is sublime for a man to die willingly and unflinchingly, however madly and mistakenly, out of love for a cause. He appears along the cloudy horizon of his day in nobler proportions than his associates. Sanborn knew of the project, but lingered at the "shrine"; Redpath was in the conspiracy, but staid home to write the obituary; Frederick Douglass was informed, but refused approval, and Sanborn tells us that Gerrit Smith approved, and Theodore Parker, and Dr. Howe, and George L. Stearns, and T. W. Higginson; also that the general purpose, though not this special project, of attacking slavery by force was indorsed by Emerson, and Alcott, and Thoreau, and Phillips, and others to the number of fifty or more; but not one was man enough to march with Brown—nay, not one stood by him at his trial. He was allowed to go to death. If the design was so desperate that none would join it, he could have been withheld at least by information to the authorities before he and

his followers had forfeited their lives. On other names than Brown's must rest the stain of his blood to all the ages.

And the pity of it is that he threw away his life; for great forces were in motion which abolished slavery, and would have done so had Brown lived and died in peaceful obscurity as a tanner in Crawford County. As Emerson truly said, "The arch-abolitionist, older than Brown, and older than the Shenandoah Mountains, is Love, whose other name is Justice—which was before Alfred, before Lycurgus, before slavery, and will be after it."

The fabulous estimate of the man, expressed in the spirited song to which the republic's armies marched, moved the soul of the nation; but it was a myth. To crown Brown the leader of liberation is like confusing the spray on the crest of the waves with the powers which move the deep. In the epic of emancipation this was an episode; omit it, and the steady movement to the climax would not be disturbed or delayed.

BEGINNING A BUSINESS LIFE.

BY HARVEY L. BIDDLE.

THE most fascinating phase of human life is at that age when youthful thought, ambition, and courage begin to take hold of the affairs of this world to earn a living. Love's early dream has in itself varied romances; religion may breathe a soft and healthful influence which is inspiring; but bread, raiment, shelter are the live questions which agitate every dependent human life as it faces the future. There is a vague reaching after a condition where one will be actively and agreeably employed. Business talent, such as attention to a thing till it is done, is one of nature's gifts as much as the power to write poetry, to make laws, or to be endowed with eloquence. It implies the faculty we call sagacity, which is often accompanied with an earnest spirit in doing anything that one purposes or determines upon. The traffic

of the world and the trade of the streets require that the individual shall have a quick, an alert mind, that he shall keep business hours, be steadfast, prompt, and industrious.

Friends may overlook mistakes and defects, but the great world around us requires businesslike methods. By contact with a man one very soon determines whether his store is clean, free from idlers, who are usually gossips; and by intuition one finds whether a business man is a gentleman, honest and true, and whether he is such a man as one cares to meet in the transaction of business. A man's personal appearance, his costume and manners, his tone of voice, his language, may become a large part of his capital in doing business, whether he is a bookkeeper, a storekeeper, a manufacturer, or a day laborer.

A man chooses business as a career just as one would choose law or medicine as a profession. The choice must always be with the individual. Parents and friends may volunteer advice and one may read biography for instruction, but the final decision must be made by the man's knowledge of himself. This can be done only by occasional trials of one's qualities and a close study of one's trend of thought and feeling apart from outside influences, which often destroy individuality by leaving the man without the determining force of a free mind to act for himself.

It is easy to discover that great opportunities in business come to but few men. Only three men have had great opportunities to rise to great political eminence through war in the whole history of the United States—George Washington, Zachary Taylor, and U. S. Grant—and only a few in each generation find a great door open before them in business. Biography is the best sort of study in early life, and yet it must always be discounted, because authors have a fashion of telling all the good things about their characters, showing their chief exploits, while they omit the defects, the mistakes, and the chief blunders which would be the most fruitful sources of suggestion in the life story.

One should learn to depend upon his own judgment in reading, in hearing conversation, and should cultivate independence of thought so as to gain the spirit of self-reliance. Many young people are ruined in character by being trained to be too dependent on the thinking and deciding of other minds. A young person should not degenerate into a mere automaton, but should begin life by learning to think and to reason on the smallest things that interest the life. It is a habit that will grow by practise, and if one adheres to the custom he will reach maturity of mind and strength of character very much earlier in life than if he drifts with the current of unthinking and unreasoning people around him.

In times past in this country the *man* rose to greatness in business—A. T. Stewart, William E. Dodge, and others; progress has

changed this, and now companies, corporations, and trusts swallow the personality of men and their names are lost to the public eye. Thus great organizations yield profit to their members, and not so much of fame or personal influence is attached to the distinguished business man as in former times.

There are certain initial principles that every young man should learn before he enters upon his business career, that he may win success and not veer from the right way by serious mistakes. It is the privilege of a person to work for whom he will, or he need not work for any man if he so elects; his may be the lot of poverty and beggary, but these are to be preferred before shame and dishonor. If he works for a man he may quit work if he so chooses; there is no power that can prevent him. It is also the privilege of a man to employ whom he will to work, and when it becomes necessary in conducting a business to dispense with that man's services he may do so. These are some of the rights which belong to the man and cannot be taken from him. This is the type of liberty that one gains by being born under the stars and stripes. He is free in his person and cannot be enslaved, nor can his rights, as a person, be abridged without doing violence to the government under which he lives. The manner of breaking business relations has much to do with the state of feeling that will exist between the individuals afterward. Here is where a thinking and reasoning mind with a kindly spirit will contribute very largely to smoothing the pathway of business life.

Should young people remain in the town where they were born and engage in business under the eyes of their parents, is a question which excites the attention of families and often of whole communities. The tendency of human life is to remain near the old homestead, to continue in later life in the enjoyment of the friendships of one's youth. The world is so large, so strange, and apparently so cold that it intimidates the life of young people and causes them to think that they will forego

great business success away from home, because adventure is not alluring and fortune is uncertain. Home, friends, and an easy living seem to restrain ambition and quiet the mind with thoughts of success in life at the place of birth.

It is pleasant for young people to be associated with their parents and the friends of their parents. Perhaps a business with a large patronage has come to them without an effort, or property which makes them rich and leaves no present prospect of want or business disaster. These things are agreeable and they inspire hope, but there are other things to consider.

Should young people engage in a business because it is prepared to their hand? If their parents did a successful business it does not follow that they will succeed. The old associations will pass away and everything may change, when it will require ingenuity to so change the business that it may be adapted to the times. An inheritance is often squandered, and the history of men proves that more inherited fortunes have been lost in business than any other kind. There are brilliant exceptions even to this rule, but this is the main modifying feature of the whole situation.

If you live in the midst of a small population and are known to every person in the community and continue to abide there during your mature life you will be obliged to inherit many of the prejudices that existed against your parents, together with the prejudices that you made in early life; petty idiosyncrasies in your character will be magnified to greater proportions than egregious faults in people who have lived at a distance from your critics. Sometimes a stranger, who has less talent, a weaker character, and no reputation, will move into the community and engage in the same business and distance you in the race of life. These things are all worthy of attention, for they weigh much in the trend of affairs which circle around one's life.

Experience is the wise teacher. It is to be a man's master, so far as he can command it, for the practical affairs to which

he may lay his hands. It comes, however, by a painstaking use of one's faculties as he associates with the world. You must have a lively perception of things going on around you, both great and small; you must understand what is transpiring, though it requires much questioning and close attention to hearing what others have to say; then your memory must be trained to receive and retain impressions that are made in the routine of business. You will find that the totality of knowledge acquired by the use of all your faculties is the fruit of your endeavor. Experience as a method of gaining information is not confined to religious people who depend upon it for one of the strongest evidences of their religious belief, because experience is of equal value in a worldly sense to a person engaged in business. It is the royal road to wisdom, that subtle attainment of the human mind which is not to be found in books or in the instruction of the schoolmen.

Observation has been a school to not a few very successful men; the eyes open, the mind open, the emotions in a plastic condition, all ready to absorb information, the wide-awake individual is sure to thus obtain helpful suggestions and inspiration. Every kind of business has its unwritten laws, rules for the conduct of the toilers, customs which have been established by keen and well-trained business minds. To observe these closely is to study all the plans and usages of a particular school of business men into which you expect to enter, to know the craft and associate with it, and not jar the plans on the trestle-board. To closely observe and faithfully perform whatever may be required is the correct method of getting theory and practice; as Horace Greeley said, "the way to resume is to resume"; the way to learn to do business is to do business.

In the business world one proves a method by use; it may yield its lesson in suffering or enjoyment, and we learn that experience comes to men in all these ways. The school of experience has no favorites, its lessons cannot be obtained by proxy, it is personal, every man for himself. When

a business man asks for a skilled workman he often means an experienced workman. Your friend is sick and calls for an experienced doctor, the wisdom of which you approve. So should young people see the value of experience in a business before venturing to assume its responsibilities or to risk their lives in that particular field.

The *tyro* is a beginner, one who needs knowledge, as he is sure to find when he engages in conflicts with the business world. It is the initial stage in a young life, the starting point. It may be considered a base, though honorable, beginning. The beginning of writing is the hieroglyphic; the beginning of eloquence is pictorial representation; the beginning of philosophy is the mythical character, and the beginning of a business career is at the ladder where you find the first round. You cannot scale it at one bound; time is a factor which must be utilized, while observation will show that it is needed to develop understanding, to broaden perception, and increase one's knowledge of what is to be done. A person who has no beginning in business will have no ending. A life with no starting point will be endless. There will be no resting place to afford satisfaction in seeing things brought to a successful conclusion. The rich fruits of labor always have a definite beginning and well-defined ending, but the individual must patiently receive hard knocks, for they will drive knowledge a long way into the consciousness of the soul. Experiences may be avoided by making your start at the beginning and gradually learning as you go along.

If you are to engage in the dry-goods business start with a clerkship; that of a publisher, learn to be a printer; an editor, master the work of a reporter. This is the rule in the professions of medicine, law, the ministry, teaching, and indeed all great enterprises.

The old system of apprenticeship in oper-

ation forty years ago meant that a father would contract with a tradesman to teach his son the trade. The boy was bound to work for three or four years and was called a "bound boy." Machinery has come in and effected radical changes, but not in all trades. In some the apprenticeship is abolished, though this system does obtain in many trades to-day—the mason's, bookbinder's, printer's, and some others—which are controlled by trades unions, where one person is admitted as an apprentice to a factory for every ten men.

Apprenticeship was the check placed upon the ambition of boys and girls who were in too much haste to be promoted. Without this check in some form intelligent advancement to a higher place is impossible. Young people are not likely to value this lesson, because ambition to get on is often restless and will not observe rules. It does not stop to think how necessary it is to go slowly that one may learn, to do the things at hand before one goes to the next line of things. It is said that the Harper family obliged every male member who desired a place in the firm to begin by learning the printer's trade. George Law, the son of a millionaire, graduated from Columbia College, but his father put him on a street-car to drive the car from Fifty-ninth Street to the Astor House and back twice a day, taking his turn with the other drivers. He learned by experience to work with his hands, though he had a college education and inherited millions of money. The world's great men have learned how important is knowledge obtained by experience. Gambetta, maker of the French Republic, waited eighteen months in Paris for his first case as a lawyer, and he served six years as a clerk to an attorney, as if chained to his desk waiting for success. Waiting at the threshold for experience will by and by lift a young person beyond playing the rôle of a novice.

THE AGE OF THE POSTER.

BY MAURICE TALMEYER.

TRANSLATED FROM THE FRENCH.

THE illustrated poster of disputatious coloring, crazy design, and fantastic character, advertising everywhere, on thousands of papers that other thousands of papers will cover the next day, an oil, a soup, a petroleum, a shoe blacking, or a new chocolate — what can be more violently modern? What more impudent thing has arisen in our day?

The present style of poster has been compared with ingenuity, but with more erudition than accuracy, to certain ancient usages. M. Charles Saunier in a vivid essay recalls that the Greeks and the Romans and even the Assyrians and Egyptians made use of the publicity of the street. He also mentions the historic placards announcing in the seventeenth century the propositions that were to be sustained in the Sorbonne, and

refers us to the "Malade Imaginaire," in which Toinette decorates her room with the thesis of Thomas Diafoirus. And only a half century ago, as we know, celebrated artists drew beautiful frontispieces for the

publications of their day. But in real truth have these vignettes any important relation with the illustrated poster? Can they be truly given as its predecessors? Were these not simple, excellent designs, regular and legitimate, and not the fantastic, disjointed, perverse, bedaubed, uniquely new, and dia-

bolically modern thing that the poster is?

The creator of the poster is Chéret, and never has a creator been more completely such than he. He has not renewed or perfected a species, he has invented one. The poster such as delights or scandalizes our streets at present did not exist before him, and nothing foretold it. It sprang like lightning from his brush. It burst forth upon our walls like a magic vegetation. Yet, however magical the blooming of the poster might be, could not



Designed by L. Lefevre.

FRENCH POSTER FOR COCOA.

the elements of it be recognized? And was it not connected with something else? There were recognized in it, in fact, under the strangest fantasticality, certain aspects of contemporary life quite strange and ex-

ceptional in themselves. And the most conspicuous aspects, although disguised in a masterly way, were those swift and



Designed by Eugene Grasset.

AMERICAN MAGAZINE POSTER.

phantom-like visions of loud colors and brazen faces offered by certain much-frequented streets of foggy London. You observed in Chéret's posters the same sights and the same dreamy atmosphere, those spectres of people and of things hurled as it were into an abyss, those eccentric forms and those mad contortions all sweeping by as if you had a fit of black vertigo.

All that, however, had neither the gloom nor the stiffness of London life, and even transformed itself into something gaudy, bright, and aerial. It was still dreamy, but it was no longer nightmare, or it was at least a nightmare described with good humor. Not only was this no longer oppressive, but it was amusing, softened by an illumination of enchantment, and of licentious enchantment—another element of the poster in which was detected a very characteristic aspect of actual life; namely, that of the little

theaters, the concert halls, and other places of nocturnal pleasures. Call clearly to mind a street of mad London; see the flaring gas and the blazing electric lights of gay nocturnal Paris; now mingle with this phantasmagoria a reflection of Japanese virtuosity, and you will have perhaps in these three elements the whole history of the genius of Chéret. For Chéret is indeed a genius, and the most marvelously extravagant and Parisian of our day.

A veritable art, then, with all that characterizes and accompanies it, is borne to us in the illustrated poster. It has its esthetics, its critics, its amateurs, its historians. It is really the mania of the day. If anyone still doubted it, as we like to doubt whatever is new, he might turn over the leaves of some works and visit some galleries which would convince him. The fine book of M. Maindron and many other articles and essays would abundantly inform him; the collection almost unique brought together by *La Plume*, the little review which interests itself so passionately in mural chromo-lithography, would continue to initiate him. Finally, the publication undertaken just now by the firm of Chaix and entitled *Masters of the Poster*, in which there are reproduced with much care and elegance the most valuable and most celebrated posters, would completely enlighten him.

A great number of artists, in fact, are now devoting themselves to the art of the placard. All artists are more or less concerned with it and the *Masters of the Poster* enables us to judge of them. In the plates which have already appeared we have first Chéret himself, with his women shivering under their transparent laces, crowned with flaming streamers, twisting like serpents or passing like comets. Then there are Ibel's posters for a journal; Georges Meunier's for cigars, De Feure's and Cazal's for expositions, Grasset's for a shop, Willette's for a pantomime, Mucha's for a theater, Toulouse-Lautrec's for a divan, Bac's and Metivel's for concert halls, Realier-Dumas' for gas, Guillaume's for an operetta, Boutet de Monvel's for a tooth-powder.

All these art posters are not always real

posters and some would better be in an album than on a fence or against a door. But many others have indeed the mural character, or approach it. Some have followed Chéret, others outside of his influence have sought for personal effect. Most of those following him have come to those deformities of dreams or of fairyland and to those exalted and chimerical perversions in which this style triumphs; and a whole generation of painters of posters and masters of the placard, producing art or trying to, has taken possession of all the free surfaces along all the public streets in all the cities, large or small; the foreign coloring, bad or good, ingenious or mediocre, but always violent or gaudy, invites the eyes everywhere, irritating them and transforming the face of the streets.

The art poster, although not dating from more than thirty years ago, has already been propagated in numerous countries and M. Octave Uzanne,

one of its best-informed historians, shows it to be diffused through almost the entire world. In England Walker, Walter Crane, Dudley Hardy, Greifenhagen, and the Beggarrstaff brothers have already carried it very far. As early as 1871 Walker, without going as far as coloring, began to presage it in the mural engraving intended

for the advertising of Wilkie Collins' romance "The Woman in White." A woman seen from behind, muffled in a shawl, was arriving with hurried step at the top of a stairway, and there turning her head, with one finger on her lip, was pulling open a heavy door which disclosed the stars of heaven. This was the first illustrated poster stuck upon the walls of London, and already implied color if it did not realize it.

Then Walter Crane revolutionized the world of amateurs by a symphony in blue and yellow for the promenade concert in Convent Garden. And a whole school of yellow has been for some years making innovations and producing excessively, always aiming at the most captivating effect by the most simple process, as in the extraordinary dancing silhouettes of Dudley Hardy, white upon a red ground or red upon a white ground; the women of Greifenhagen, likewise brushed on



Designed by E. F. Skinner.

ENGLISH MAGAZINE POSTER.

in blinding masses, and especially the summary and mystifying figures of the Beggarrstaff brothers, thrown upon immense sheets of wrapping paper, on which they sketch their visions with nothing but the lacuna.

In America still more than in England the loud and enticing poster abounds and is multitudinous, but there too as elsewhere it in-

spires artists. Let us especially mention Bradley, of whom the Salon of One Hundred revealed to us last year seven pretty compositions executed for a little bimonthly review of Chicago, called the *Chap Book*; Will Carqueville, connected with Lippincott's of Philadelphia; finally Penfield, Woodbury, Rhead, and George Wharton Edwards. The delicate gray or rose-colored background, the white or pale green picture, the women in golden hair, on light blue horizons, the large mystical flowers, the symbolical forests, with something of the Middle Ages, corrected by something of the Japanese — a little of all this is found, however disconnected the medley appears, in many American posters. Some, like those of Penfield, of Bradley, of Carqueville, have some elegance or some humor, and sometimes a real masterliness. Others recall to us at the same time the vignettes of old prayer-books, or of cigar boxes. And Belgium,

Germany, Italy, and Spain have their art posters too. The Belgian placard is particularly artistic. In Austria, according to M. Uzanne, the poster is soft and fleshly; in Switzerland, stiff and awkward; in Italy, loud with debauches of indigo and solferino red; in Spain it has tints of the orange omelet.

The striking thing in the posters of all countries is the trueness with which they mark boundaries and express differences of mind, social condition, and climate. Between the English poster and the French poster, in spite of all the analogies and all the exchanging of processes which bring them together, we feel the two races. The French poster, light and subtle, has delicacies, suggestions, veiled reflections; that of

Chéret, notably, is all suppleness, shivers, transparency, folds, and coils. His women are phantoms, but palpitating phantoms. One would feel that they are alive by touching them. Their silk rustles between your fingers. The women of Dudley Hardy and of Greifenhagen, although derived from those of Chéret, especially reproduce the short and stout English woman — cold, ironical, at once frantic and stiff; when they move they must crack like wooden dolls. Nor is there any relation between the



Designed by A. C. Torbayne.

ENGLISH BOOK POSTER.

English poster and the American poster, or between the Belgian and the Swiss, or between the solferinos of Italy and the orange omelets of Spain. All these illustrated advertisements are as different, as foreign in tone, in movement, and in spirit as the physiognomies, the language, the society, the habits, the architecture, and the atmos-

HARPER'S



Designed by Edward Penfield.

AMERICAN MAGAZINE POSTER.

phere of Brussels are different from those of Constantinople. The art poster is a result, an efflorescence, and the most powerful and most logical offshoot in which life has taken form for a long time. It is indeed a picturesque phase corresponding to a human phase.

These pictures of a day or of an hour, washed off by the rains, charcoaled by the urchins, burned by the sun, covered over by others sometimes even before they are dry, symbolize to a more intense degree than the press the rapid, jolting, multitudinous life that bears us along. Of this life the poster is a continual reflection. It mingles with it while reproducing it and reproduces it while mingling with it, as the instability of the water reproduces the trembling of the leaves while adding to their trembling. It stores up not only the rapidity, but also the acuteness and the cruelty of life, to reproduce them in strange cries with the deformities of the phonograph. It gives back by its indefinable colors, its perverse tone,

its strangeness, all that that life in its brevity contains and gives of disturbing joltings, of intense vanities, of ephemeral frenzies, of sickly efforts toward the sun and victory, destined for the sorry mud of the gutter. The life of the past was strong and slow; its natural expression was found in architecture, in the great things in stone that required the pick and the fire to destroy them; the present life is feverish and disconnected, reflecting many colors, and is summed up in the poster, put up in the morning, torn down in the evening, destined for the street cleaner's cart, and yet embodying a concentrated art.

Thus the more one compares ancient life



Designed by Kenyon Cox.

AMERICAN MAGAZINE POSTER.

with present life the more one finds them both, with all their characteristics, even their moral characteristics, in the edifice and in the poster. The monument of former times, with all the arts that it embraced—painting, sculpture, ornamentations and decorations of every sort—came from a lordly art, eminently aristocratic or dominating, responding to the social order of the period. The idea of an authority, of something superior to the people, stronger, grander and different from them, was set forth by the *château* and the cathedral, and their masses or their poems in stone, in spite of all that could brighten them, hardly spoke to the multitude of anything but their social or religious duties. They were imposing by their sanctity, their power, or their majesty. The people found in them nothing but exhortations to prayer and suggestions of obedience. The church cried out to you the eternity of religion: the palace, the splendor of the prince: and the

ALHIER TE BEKOMEN:



Prijs f 2.90.

Designed by Jan de Waart.

DUTCH BOOK POSTER.

individual, the subject, thus felt himself crushed beneath the weight of a divine or a royal interest in the presence of which his own did not exist.

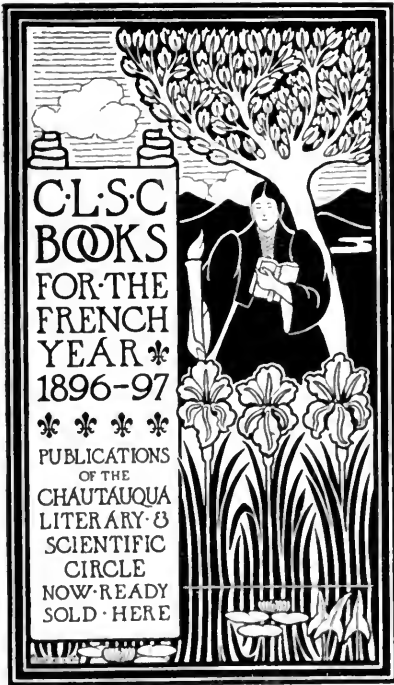
The poster, on the contrary, speaks to us only of ourselves, our pleasures, our tastes, our interests, our food, our health, our life. It does not say to us, "Pray, obey, sacrifice thyself, adore God, fear thy master, respect thy king." It whispers to us, "Amuse yourself, take care of yourself, feed yourself, go to the concert, read romances, buy good soup, eat good chocolate, take a hand at the carnival, keep yourself fresh, handsome, strong, good humored, paint yourself, comb yourself, perfume yourself, take care of your linen, your clothes, your teeth, your hands, and take pills if you have a cold."

Is not this what the art poster, from the top to the bottom of the walls, and from the windows of all shops, repeats to us in all tones, in all colors, by all its fantasmagoria and by all its goddesses of fame with golden



Designed by Aubrey Beardsley.

ENGLISH BOOK POSTER.



Designed by Theodore Brown Hapgood, Jr., for Messrs. Flood & Vincent, The Chautauqua-Century Press.

AMERICAN BOOK POSTER.

hair, freely scattering their glances and holding trumpets to their mouths? Is not this in fact the natural and logical effect of an age of individualism and of excessive egotism? Is not this indeed the modern monument, the *château* of paper, the cathedral of sensuality, in which all that we have in us of culture or of esthetics finds nothing to occupy itself with except the exaltation of its comfort and the tickling of its instincts? Architects may still build churches, as professors of rhetoric may still make Latin verses; they both compose in dead languages. But the veritable architecture of to-day, that which springs from ambient and palpitating life, is the poster. It is the unstable edifice demolished every evening, reconstructed every morning, of gaudy and changing pictures which irritate and interrupt the passer-by, flatter him, provoke him, laugh at him, drag him away, and entice him.

The necessary result of this nimble and degenerate art, as may easily be imagined, is a special mechanical demoralization, like that of the swift pictures of the kinetoscope.

Turn over the leaves of the posters in collections, examine well those of the streets, and you will never find, either on a wall or at a collector's, a fine moral poster whose effect is the exaltation of noble sentiment.

The scandalous character of the poster has often been spoken of. The young girl in many attitudes is its special subject. Whether a man wants to make us buy his paste for removing superfluous hair, or his tonic, he always advertises by means of the young girl. She entices us to the shop, and we do not even know what is sold there. It must be said, however, that mural art has always had its licentious side, even in periods of strict authority. The ancient witches in old bas-reliefs have left the old capitals and the old doorways, called on the milliner and the dressmaker, put on plumed hats and gauzy robes, exchanged their broom handle for a fan, and leaped into the gorgeous chromos from which they invite us to buy the elixirs of youth which have re-



Designed by G. De Feure.

FRENCH EXPOSITION POSTER.

juvenated them. Eve, seen so often in the old stone vignettes of our cathedrals, has been resuscitated in the shop windows in her gay descendants, a little less in dishabille than she, but quite as tempting and offering us innumerable varieties of apples.

An enormous difference exists, however, between the mural immorality of other times and that of our day. When the ancient bas-relief is obscene it is crudely so, with something of the natural, the barbaric, and the mythological. It is an immodest fantasy displayed in all its nakedness, but going no farther than fantasy for fantasy's sake and nudity for nudity's sake. It is animal immodesty interpreted by artists' immodesty. The poster is quite a different thing. Its immodesty is wise, systematic, calculated, commercial. It is a professional immodesty, governed and measured according to the demands and the tricks of a trade.

It is a strange condition of imagination and a strange moral atmosphere in

which the poster thus holds us. The masses of people and those especially whose impressions are liveliest, the woman, the child, the young girl, have continual visions of concert halls and night gardens. It is not the worship of physical beauty such as existed

among the ancients under Phidias or Apelles, nor is it the great high tide of art such as Italy's at the age of Titian or of Raphael, but it is simply a custom of equivocation, of scandal, of double meanings, and of vice. And what here again distinguishes the poster is that it does not propose all this to us more or less persuasively, but it imposes it upon us. I read a book if I want to; I go and see

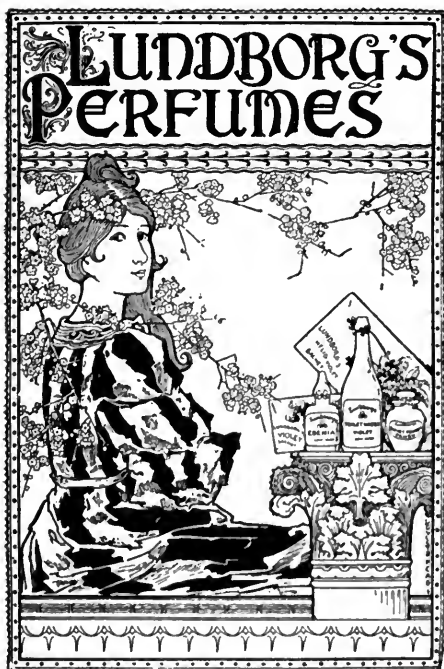
a picture if I feel like it; I do not buy a newspaper in spite of myself; but the poster I see, even if I do not want to see it; whether it irritates me or suits me I must endure it. Does it outrage my delicacy, my convictions, my religion, my taste? It ridicules them, and forces itself into my eyes. It is this that I am obliged to breathe, and it is forced into my blood, and not only into mine, but into my wife's, into the young lady's, into that of the child who is learning its letters and reads as yet nothing but pictures.



Designed by Maxfield Parrish.

AMERICAN POSTER.

The excuse of the poster is that it is itself an effect. It is like those flowers of insalubrious countries which cause fever by exhaling what they have drawn from the soil. A poster gives back to society what it receives therefrom. What an original



Designed by Louis J. Rhead.

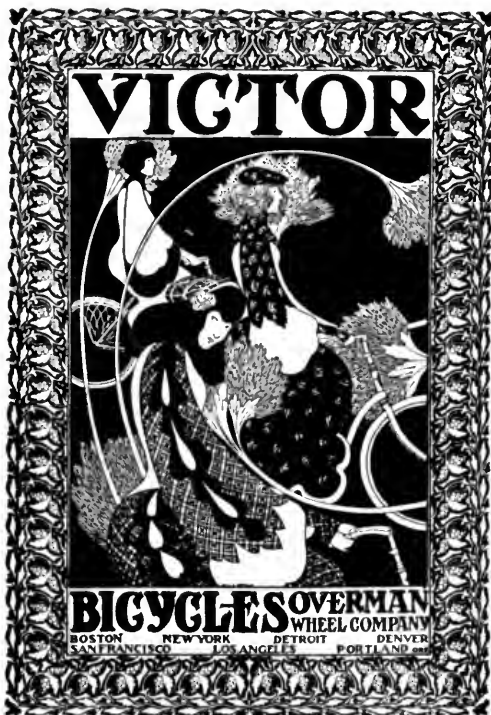
AMERICAN POSTER.

art, truly and spontaneously modern! A morbid art, a perverse art, pestilential, miasmatic, but art all the same; quite contrary to the literary pornography that we have seen growing by the side of it, whose fetid eccentricities and unspeakable affectations have never been anything but false art. But in the poster I am sensible of a vigor and a sincerity; it has let loose upon the world a winged horde of incendiaries of joy and of vice. It is truly a flame of perdition. I truly see in it the very art of Gomorrah.

The conclusion is self-evident. From the point of view of permanent morality and of self-preservation the poster, such as it flourishes to-day upon our walls, is a terrible agent of perversion. It exalts all that is frivolous and sensual, dissolves every high idea and every strong sentiment. It acts at the same time with impudence and despotic noise in the manner of a flag or a tocsin from the sight or sound of which we are not free to escape. Transport yourself a thousand or two thousand years into the future and suppose the corner of one H-Jan.

of our streets to be discovered with its posters. What child's play the legend of Belshazzar's wall would become by the side of certain Parisian walls simply besmeared with certain advertisements.

How true it is that the only really living arts, the only ones destined to remain as witnesses of an age, are the arts that really have sprung from the sap and the root of that age. The poster in this respect springs from our age, as the Parthenon sprang from that of Greece, and as the cathedrals from the Middle Ages. This coloring thrown upon fine paper sums up as completely, as mysteriously, the modern world as the decorations of old doorways solidly fixed in stone sum up older ages. Triumphant, exultant, painted, placarded, torn down in a few hours, occupying our hearts and souls continually with its loud folly, the poster is indeed the art, and almost the only art, of this age of fever and of laughter, of struggle, of ruin, of electricity, and of oblivion. Nothing of it will



Designed by Will H. Bradley.

AMERICAN POSTER.

remain, no doubt. But what will be left some day of the most indestructible pyramids? Seen from a certain height, the eternal and the ephemeral are no longer distinguished from each other, and stone and paper become confounded in the infinite.

[One may well question, and especially in America, the conclusions reached by M. Talmeyer in this article. They represent views which, even in France, and more so in England and the United States, cannot be permitted to pass for long without protest. While the modern poster flaunts itself everywhere, in the most astounding colors, and not infrequently appeals more or less directly to the sensuous in nature, it is not entirely a thing of perversion. The poster is to be seriously reckoned with as a phase of artistic development of which much good has already come and from which a more wholesome effect is to be confidently expected. Posters, like newspapers, reflect human life in the various degrees of its intensity and activity, but it is not by any means to be set down as a fact that the modern poster, even in France, the place of its nativity, is entirely concerned with the abnormal, the sensuous in life. To be sure, posters are oftentimes freighted with offense, but if so they leave without disguise the character of the very things whose index they are.

Within recent years the poster art has attracted the services of many of our best artists, whose influence in this field has been potential and eleva-

ting. The simple and severe typographical or primitively colored announcements of magazines, books, soaps, bicycles, and other articles have within a comparatively short time given place to more or less artistic creations in form and color. Many of this class, and indeed most of those apart from theatrical posters, contribute by their very character to the elevation of artistic taste, and by their good humor and novelty, not to say startling oddity, they attract rather than repel interest. Who can say also that the theatrical poster has not improved

somewhat in consequence of this development, and that if some posters of this class are shockingly immoral it is not primarily the fault of the poster but more particularly of the play which it is called upon to represent in advance?

The illustrations which accompany this article are reproductions of representative types of posters published in this country and abroad, and serve to still further emphasize the view that much of good in morals as in art may come from the modern poster. It has become the creature of commerce, whose means to success is that which carries the name and merit of an article most effectively to the



Designed by Maurice Greiffenhagen.

ENGLISH PERIODICAL POSTER.

mind of the consumer, a means which we call advertising and which a watchful public demands shall be changeful and resourceful. This the advertiser has interpreted for the present to mean artistic, as well as prudent, judicious, and continuous advertising, in which the modern poster demands a large and interesting part.—EDITOR THE CHIAU-TAUQUAN.]

WOMAN'S COUNCIL TABLE.

A NEW YEAR'S CEREMONY—THE BLESSING OF ANIMALS.

BY ELEANOR HODGENS.

CHRISTMAS day is not the day *par excellence* of the year in all Christian countries. In France, for example, it is to New Year's Day, and not to Christmas, that all eyes are turned in anticipation of feasting and merrymaking. Their *jour de l'an* is to them the great festival day all over France. Shops are closed, presents exchanged, and all give themselves up to the hilarious enjoyment of this day, over all days of the year.

Among the French lower and middle classes Christmas is scarcely observed, except in attending midnight mass and in eating a good supper afterward. All present-giving, jollification, and in some localities even the setting up of the traditional holiday tree are reserved for Sylvester's Eve, which comes on the last night of the year—the Vigil of St. Sylvester, it is called.

In traveling through the south of France at this season we chanced upon a curious ceremony attached to this Sylvester night. It was the blessing of flocks and herds of animals, which were driven by the peasants of the surrounding country to a little church lying high in the Cévennes Mountains, there to have mass said over them by the priest.

These herds of cattle constitute the greater part of the wealth of the simple inhabitants of this region, and every New Year's Eve they bring their precious animals to receive a blessing for the new year, that they may be fruitful and multiply and bring prosperity to their owners throughout the year.

There are but few churches in this wild and romantic mountain country of the Black Espinouse, one church and one priest often serving for several of the humble surrounding villages. Many of the animals, therefore, are driven a considerable distance to attend this ceremony.

All that day in passing through the country we saw herds of oxen and cows, goats, sheep, and pigs driven along the roads by their owners, to be in readiness for the mass to take place in the evening.

Such animals as they were! Such glossy-hided oxen and cows! Such white sheep and clean pigs! Evidently the peasants had taken the greatest care in washing and brushing their charges into proper church attire. In many cases I saw women driving goats or sheep trimmed with ribbons or decorated with paper flowers, and there were bullocks with garlands of these same tawdry flowers thrown around their thick necks.

One of these, a young bullock whose snow-white hide shone out in contrast to a yoke of pink paper roses, took fright at the unusual apparition of our strange conveyance and broke away from the young peasant girl who led him. She was forced to clutch at the garland around his neck in trying to restrain him, when, alas! the paper roses which had been her pride were scattered in the mud of the highway.

As the time for mass approached all the animals were marshaled before the portico in the grassy courtyard of the little stone church, which stood on a plateau overlooking several scattered hamlets below. The church was a poor affair, both outside and inside. The outer walls were moss-grown and the bell which tolled for mass in the square steeple was cracked and discordant. At its sound the animals began to bleat and bellow and tried to escape down the steep incline. But they were restrained by those of the peasants who remained outside the church while mass was being said inside.

Here in the plain interior were only rude paintings and earthen vases of pine branches, and the candles decorating the

altar were in wooden candlesticks. All the mountaineers who could leave their animals in the care of those outside crowded the little church, and each held a lighted candle of coarse yellow wax. These threw their gleams up into the stolid faces of the peasants as they sang an old hymn in the dialect of the Cévennes—“*Nei pus belo que lon chour*” (Night more beautiful than day)—and with the singing came a strange commingling of sounds from the animals outside.

The *curé* was a white-haired old man, attired in heavy brocaded vestments whose once glittering gold threads now showed the tarnish of time. At the end of the mass he once more held aloft the host, and chanting the Magnificat slowly walked through the church to the portico outside. At this moment the white-haired priest, in his trailing mantle of brocade, lighted by the glare of the candles in the hands of the congregation who followed him, presented a spectacle almost sublime.

But strange as was this scene inside the church that which met us upon the threshold was even more strange and impressive. Column after column of cattle, driven by their guardians, now approached the portico where the old priest stood, and crowded the frozen turf before the door. At sight of the gorgeously appareled priest, the many twinkling lights, and the collection of people the eyes of all these poor dumb brutes showed bewilderment, dread, and protest, and some of them became so frightened as to be almost beyond control.

After an impressive moment of silence in which even the animals joined, the priest, holding the sacred host high above his head and lowering his voice to deep tones, pronounced some words of benediction. Instantly all the people, including the drivers and shepherds out beside the flocks, fell upon their knees and murmured words of response.

At this moment an acolyte passed from behind the priest on the portico steps, and taking a holy-water sprinkler walked through the ranks of bellowing and frightened animals and deftly threw upon them the holy

water. The oxen and cows were thus blessed first, followed by the sheep, goats, and pigs in turn. A moon glittered high above the dark mountain slopes, and aided by the candle lights revealed clearly the long polished horns and heaving sides of the oxen and the glossy coats and white woolly skins of the goats and sheep.

Truly it was a strange congregation—and not a very well-behaved one. At the approach of the acolyte and the touch of holy water on their bodies the animals struggled, bellowed, bleated, and squealed more restively than before, and even the more peaceful ones, who had been lying down, frightened by the cries of their fellows now sprang to their feet and uttering pitiful cries tried to escape down the mountain.

But high above this noise and tumult rose again the voice of the old priest. “My children,” he said distinctly, “God in his goodness and mercy sends me, his unworthy servant, here to bless your flocks, according to an ancient custom of our mountains, so that these animals by whose aid you live may join in our religious ceremonies which usher in a new year. Let us therefore sing together a loud hosanna in praise of the ever-merciful Lord, so lenient to sinners.”

In obedience to his command the people, when he had ceased speaking, broke into a thunderous volume of singing, whose sound rang down from the elevated plateau to the hamlets below and echoed from crag to crag of the wild mountains. The animals, startled anew at this farewell hymn, lifted their voices again in loud cries, adding their powerful notes to this strange song of praise.

Surely nothing more striking than this beautiful festival of the “Animals’ Mass” could be seen in any other part of the world, and nothing more touching than the simple faith of the people which it illustrates.

When the last note died away the strange *cortège* began to move slowly down the path toward the valley in the same order in which it had come.

Standing still in the grassy courtyard, so lately pressed by the hoofs of many animals, we strained our eyes after them down the inclines until they were far out of sight in

the distance, the occasional low of cattle or the plaintive bleat of a lambkin unused to the cold night air coming to us through the moonlit air of this last night of the old year.

But this region of the Espinouse is not the only place in which animals "attend church." There is a most poetical and beautiful ceremony celebrated in Rome on St. Agnes' Day in the blessing of the lambs from whose wool the garments of the pope are made.

These pretty little creatures are brought up and cared for by the nuns, who on St. Agnes' Day every year bring the new lambs that have been born during the year to receive a blessing.

There is first a mass said by the bishop, who wears a gorgeous chasuble of pink velvet embroidered with pearls and silver threads, pink gloves with the sacred monogram embroidered on the back, and carries a diamond-encrusted miter.

At the end of this mass the lambs are carried in by soldiers in full uniform. The

beautiful little creatures, whiter than snow and innocent as only lambs can appear, rest in white velvet baskets on beds of crimson roses. Around their fluffy soft necks hang garlands of pink rosebuds tied by white satin ribbons, and on their wooly heads are crowns of red and white roses.

These lovely little balls of downy flesh gaze at first with pitiful appeal in their innocent eyes at the procession of priests in gorgeous robes and at the brilliantly lighted cathedral.

When the lambs have reached the altar the bishop removes his pink silk gloves and dips the tips of his fingers in a golden basin containing holy water. With this he sprinkles the timid lambkins, who are apt at this point to attempt to rise in alarm from their flowery beds in the velvet baskets.

They are gently thrust back, however, by their custodians; the prelate strokes their heads reassuringly, says a benediction over them, and the "Blessing of the Lambs" is ended until another year.

MANUAL FOR ARMY COOKS.

BY ELISE F. HANNAH.

Then mix and bake
The johnny-cake
And stir the omelet light;
The surest plan
To please a man
Is through his appetite.

(Sing to the tune of "Old Grimes.")

IS the above the keynote of action adopted to gain recruits for the army? Or is it a mere coincidence that simultaneously with Major-general Nelson A. Miles' call for more recruits for the army—a call in which he cannot hold forth military promotion as an inducement for enlistment because the army is already over-officered—there appears among new books the "Manual for Army Cooks"? Whether a coincidence or not, no doubt an acquaintance with this manual will divest the duty of enlistment of half its horrors, namely the half involved in the proverbial army diet of hardtack and salt pork. It describes an

abundance of appetizing things as the food of soldiers under ordinary circumstances—in garrison, in camp, or on the march. This is as it should be, for who deserves better at the hands of the nation than the soldier, who gives up all his home comforts and lives in rigid discipline, when not actually risking his life, for the sake of his country?

The tables of contents alone of the manual are almost enough to rouse one's patriotism to the enlisting point. In the directions for cooking in garrison there are 27 different recipes for soups, 16 for fish, 71 for meats, 16 for gravies and sauces, 3 for hashes, 103 for vegetables, 16 for bread, 11 for pancakes, 3 for pie crusts, 33 for puddings, 2 for doughnuts, and 8 for coffee, tea, chocolate, and lemonade.

For the easy and speedy following of these recipes are given tables of approximate

weights and measures, a time-table for cooking meats and one for vegetables, besides many invaluable suggestions and cautions. The garrison is provided with a good serviceable army range, all necessary cooking utensils, and china, glassware, and cutlery for serving the food on the dining tables. Moreover the manual prescribes, both for the barracks and for the field, "men in sufficient numbers fully instructed in managing and cooking the rations."

For the comfort of all sympathizers with the Cubans who just now are particularly anxious about the country's foreign affairs, let it be said that not all this provision of good things gives occasion for alarm lest the soldier shall devote his entire strength to coping with internal warfare. His meals are too well arranged for that. The amount of food is limited by the ration, which allots to each person daily a certain number of ounces each of meat components, of bread components, of vegetables, of coffee and sugar, of seasoning, and of soap and candle components.

Whether one shall receive his meat in salt pork or roast turkey, his bread in hard-tack or warm biscuit, etc., of course is not a matter of choice with the individual. All that depends each day upon the bill of fare, which is planned by the head of the cooking management. The bills of fare suggested in the manual arrange for three simple, wholesome meals each day. Few dishes are called for at one meal but there is considerable variety in the food in the course of a day and a great variety in a week.

Should the overseer neglect to plan the meals well and the cooks prefer to prepare only the easiest dishes, the legalized quantity of food ingredients, usually a redeeming trait of a plain meal, certainly would cease to be a virtue. Even this prospect should not frighten one about to enlist when he considers at how many boarding-houses he has grown thin from the scarcity of food, never getting enough of anything except on the installment plan—that is, a little more of the same dish at each meal, *ad nauseam*. Or let him not experienced in boarding-house fare recall how often on sitting down to the

table he has remembered the buttons his wife must sew on his garments, the rushing through with her house-work to get time for those social duties which she has to shoulder if he keeps up to his mark in the social scale—how many things does he not remember that make him hesitate to tell his wife he is sick to disgust of the same kind of soup continually and potatoes cooked the same way? But in the army the cooks are excused from all other duties. Hence, without any scruples against using his right of appeal to headquarters, the soldier need not suffer for lack of properly prepared food, in times of peace.

The manual shows how to vary the fare even in seasons of scarcity when it is not possible to secure much variety in the raw materials. This is done by cooking the articles in many different ways.

Nor is cleanliness a forgotten element in army life. Explicit directions are here given for its promotion, both in the preparation of food and in the care of all cooking utensils. If the directions are enforced in practice, tinware in the army receives much more attention than in most home kitchens. Indeed the New Woman would do well to send her husband to the army to learn how to take care of her tinware. One direction especially shows the inwardness of the advice on cleanliness: "In washing any greasy utensil, it is best, if possible, to use the hand instead of flannel or rags, as they retain the grease, and so keep putting it on again instead of scrubbing it off."

In camp life the joys of dining are more precarious than in the barracks because of the many inconveniences to proper cooking of the food. However, as an offset to this drawback to camp life, the appetite is better in outdoor life. For field use the cooking utensils are necessarily simple. The dishes are few, and instead of the reliable barrack range in the shelter of a tidy kitchen some rude cooking place must be improvised. Of these cooking places the simplest and most economical as to fuel is in the form of a trench dug in the ground. With moderate weather, favorable soil, and sufficient skill such a stove can be made to answer every

purpose. Field ovens, too, of primitive fashion, are constructed for baking "soft bread," beans, meats, etc. This is done even when the army is on the march, provided the weather is not too stormy for the bread to rise.

For individual cooking and eating on the field, necessitated by emergencies, the government furnishes each soldier with one meat can and plate combined, one three-pint canteen, one tin cup, one knife, fork, and spoon. These articles are carried in the haversack, except the cup, which is fastened to the strap. The meat can and plate are two oval dishes of block tin, eight inches long by six and one half inches wide, and made to fit into each other. The lower dish is one quarter of an inch the deeper, being one inch in depth, and to it is attached a light iron handle which folds over to hold the two plates together. This handle enables it to be used as a frying-pan, a dipper, and in various other capacities.

With all its hardships camp cooking with the most primitive implements is not so fatal to good food as might be supposed. Perhaps the chief reason of this is that there are many recipes for cooking meats, breads, vegetables, soups, etc., adapted to just such conditions of fire and dishes. For instance,

TO BAKE PORK AND BEANS WITHOUT OVEN.

Have a trench about 18 inches wide, 18 inches deep, and from 4 to 6 feet long; keep a fire in this for several hours; let fire die down so that there shall be a bed of coals and hot ashes; it is then ready for use. Prepare beans as usual for baking and place in mess kettles; pour in three quarts of hot water; cover with tin plate or mess pan; scrape out the embers until kettle will be near bottom of trench; cover first with ashes, then with coals, and leave undisturbed for 6 to 8 hours.

FIELD BREAD, BAKED IN FRYING-PAN.

[After preparing the dough] grease the frying-pan and set it over hot embers until the grease begins to melt; put the dough, rolled to a thickness of half an inch, in the pan and set it on the fire; shake the pan every few moments to prevent the dough from adhering; after the crust has formed on the bottom take the bread out of the pan and set it up on edge, close to the fire, turning it occasionally to insure its being baked through.

There are even recipes for cooking food without any cooking utensils at all. These recipes, boon as they may be to those who dislike dish-washing, are more particularly adapted, to borrow O. W. Holmes' expression, to those "go, gobble, and git receptions" that sometimes are held by soldiers who have been cut off from joining the provision-train detachment of the army.

BAKED BEEF HEAD (WITHOUT COOKING UTENSILS).

Dig in the ground a hole of sufficient size and build a fire in it. After the fuel has burned to coals put in the head, neck downward. Cover it with green grass, coals, and earth. Build a good fire over the buried head and keep it burning for about six hours. Unearth the head and remove the skin. A head treated in this way at night will be found cooked in the morning. The head of any animal may be cooked in this way.

BAKED FISH (WITHOUT COOKING UTENSILS).

Dig a hole in the ground about eighteen inches deep and of sufficient size to contain the fish; build a fire in it and let it burn to coals. Remove the coals, leaving the hot ashes at the bottom, upon which place a thick layer of green grass; place the fish on top and cover with another layer of grass; then rake back the live coals and loose earth and build a small fire on top. At the end of about three quarters of an hour the fish will be found cooked with the juice retained; the skin will peel off and leave the flesh clean and free from ashes and dirt.

To those who cannot conceive of more comfort in army life than that of doing nobly one's duty, who continue to judge all army life, even in times of peace, by the great hardships endured and the never-to-be-forgotten sacrifices made by those brave souls who fought our country's battles, this book will be a revelation.

To those skeptic pessimists who are inclined to take seriously Orpheus C. Kerr's joke about frequently distributing paper and pencils through the army so that the soldiers might draw their rations as usual, let it be said that the accounts in this manual certainly ought to be reliable, having been "prepared under the direction of the commissary-general of subsistence" and "published by authority of the secretary of war for use in the army of the United States."

PROGRESSIVE HOUSEKEEPING.

BY JANE KINGSFORD.

III.

THE basis of good housekeeping is good marketing. We may have the best ranges, gas stoves, and electrical heaters, the latest and best patterns of cooking utensils, and be excellent cooks, and yet be, as grandmother would say, "poor providers." In the old times in New England a "good provider" was simply a housekeeper who bought abundantly at the store and market. To-day it means much more, because the household buyer or provider has to meet wholly new conditions and new food materials.

Fifty years ago all foods had their "seasons" and almost everything was in its natural state. Fruits, vegetables, and fish were in season for only a few weeks and could rarely be purchased out of their season. Dried, smoked, salted, and pickled meats and fish were the only forms in which meats or fish could be found, except when fresh. A little preserved fruit of inferior quality, a little dried fruit, and a limited supply of pickles were all the grocery stores had to offer out of season. Vegetables were all in a raw state and summer vegetables were almost unknown in winter. To-day we find wholly new conditions. The railroads have greatly prolonged the season for fruits and vegetables. Science has come to the aid of the housekeeper and increased enormously the food supply of the world and reduced the cost of housekeeping. The progressive housekeeper clearly recognizes that "providing" means now not only an understanding of the progress of food saving and food preparation but a willingness to accept the wonderful variety of foods and food preparations now offered to her by modern science.

That there is a general and wide-spread interest in the new things in market and store is clearly shown by the large attendance at the many "food shows" that have been held in this country within the

past few years. A large food show was open for a month in New York this fall and a new department store, wishing to signalize the opening of its establishment, gave a free food show and opened a large lecture-room free to the public, with free cooking lessons every day. The crowds that gather round the "sample counters" at such exhibitions clearly show that the housekeepers are at last waking up to the value of the new food supplies now offered to us in such abundance.

These food supplies are clearly divided into two classes, the preserved meats, fruits, fish, and vegetables put up in tin and glass and commonly known as "canned goods," and the prepared foods or food preparations. Canned goods are simply partly cooked food preserved from decay by sealing tight from air. There is no reason whatever why we should not use canned foods. In fact it is a very foolish prejudice that keeps any of us from using such food. Of course, we are none of us so unwise as to buy canned corn when green corn is in the market. It is equally unwise to refuse to have canned vegetables in midwinter just because we have a notion that "canned things are unhealthy."

The whole matter is very simple. Food sealed in tin or glass by reputable people who use common honesty and reasonable care in their manufactories is just as good, safe, and healthy as any raw food in the market, because the very process of canning tends to destroy bacteria. Almost all raw food exposed for sale in open markets and on sidewalks and in wagons is loaded with bacteria. The wonder is not that more people are not made ill by canned food, but that so many people live after eating the raw, dust-covered food we buy at the stores. In New York the Board of Health forbid the marketmen to expose meats in the open air. Meat in a tin is certainly safer than meat

hanging on a hook in an open market next the street. As sensible and progressive housekeepers our course is plain. Use all the canned things you wish. They save time, labor, fuel, money, and nerves and they give our tables what all American tables need so much, more variety and more fruit and more vegetables. There is only one simple rule to observe with canned goods—look at the labels. Buy of reputable people whom you know and trust. Having found a good “brand,” stick to it.

The terms “food preparation” and “prepared food” are modern terms used to describe the countless forms of partly or wholly cooked food prepared for immediate use in the kitchen. For instance, the partly cooked oatmeals and wheats, salads, boned turkey or chicken, puddings, soups, patties, and jellied meats are “prepared foods” in the sense of being ready or very nearly ready for immediate consumption. The number and variety of these preparations has increased immensely in the last few years and almost every month sees familiar materials put up in new and usually very attractive forms.

Two things have contributed to the increase in the supply of prepared foods. The first of these is the very high rents charged in our cities, which have compelled housekeepers to use very small kitchens with gas for fuel. We have no room to store quantities of food as our mothers did. Gas fuel is too costly to allow us to cook oatmeal six hours when prepared oatmeal can be served on the breakfast table in six minutes. We have not the room or time or fuel to make a soup that must cook for three hours when a canned soup can be served hot in five minutes. The second reason is that women have come to recognize that life and time are too valuable to waste in any housework that can be done cheaper, quicker, and better outside the house. We cannot afford the time to watch the stock-pot while better soups than we can make are in endless variety in the stores.

The progressive housekeeper will thankfully accept these new food preparations, studying them, testing them on her table,

and finding out by actual trial which is best and cheapest. We must recognize in this matter that the makers of these prepared foods employ skilful and careful cooks and often employ chemists to test and examine all the material they buy and sell. It costs a great deal of money to establish a first-rate kitchen for making prepared foods. Absolute neatness, precision, and invariable honesty is the only road to success. A few dozen samples of inferior goods will destroy in a few week the reputation that it takes years to build up. The prepared foods made by the best firms are more uniform in character than any food we can prepare in our homes and a housekeeper can depend for a first-rate soup or pudding with more security upon a purchased article than she can on any ordinary cook.

The tendency in housekeeping to-day is clearly toward a saving in time and labor. “The way mother did” is too expensive of both labor and time. The electric light, the electric cooking appliances, electric lamp, and gas lighting appliances, the gas stove, the electric motor, preserved foods, and prepared foods have come to our aid because we feel we must have such things. Life is too full to waste a minute in doing things in the house that can be done cheaper and better outside the house. Housekeepers and house-mothers have a right to demand everything and anything that science can bring to them to save their time and strength. Housekeeping there will always be. Let us, however, see that we are not all slaves to our kitchens, accepting thankfully all the new things that have come to lighten the labors of the home and leave the house-mothers' hands free for higher and better things.

Finally, the most progressive housekeeping includes some knowledge of food values. We all know in a general way that milk is best for babes and meat for strong men, that fat meats are best for cold weather and fruits for warm weather—and there our knowledge stops. We do not know whether chicken or oysters, salt mackerel or steaks contain the most nutrient nor do we know which of all the

foods in the market is cheapest. We know which costs the most, but we seldom recognize that cost has nothing to do with real food value.

Many housekeepers think this a purely scientific aspect of housekeeping and that they need not pay any attention to it. Now the real facts of the value of food are few, and so simple that any young girl can be easily trained to master and apply them in ordinary housekeeping. For instance, food supplies heat to the system. Clothing keeps heat in, food creates heat in the body. Food is a fuel and the unit of fuel value in any food is called a "calory." A man doing a moderate day's work requires 3,520 calories every day and this he must obtain from his food. The number of calories any food will give is its fuel value. The fuel values of all our common foods are now easily obtained from books and the progressive housekeeper can easily estimate just how many calories any dish on her table will contain. Three pounds of chicken, costing (city prices) sixty cents, will give 990 calories. Two pounds of round steak, costing thirty cents, will give 1,710 calories. One pound of smoked ham, costing twelve cents, will give 1,735 calories. Half a pound of oatmeal, costing two and a half cents, will give 925 calories.

If a man requires 3,520 calories in a day his breakfast should contain at least 1,173 calories. We usually regard one three-pound chicken as sufficient for a breakfast for four people. This would be only 247 calories apiece, or 926 calories short, which

must be made up by some other food. A cup of coffee and a roll will not do it.

The point is here. Can any woman call herself a progressive housekeeper and not be familiar with such a simple little fact as this, or who is not competent to figure out from such simple data the right proportions of food to supply to her family? We complain of the cost of housekeeping and yet we keep on buying extravagantly expensive food. One half pound of good oatmeal, costing two and a half cents, will give more real fuel value than three pounds of chicken costing sixty cents—and thirty per cent of the chicken (which we have to pay for) is dead loss and waste.

There are other elements that enter into the value of food besides this heat value that is expressed in calories, but these are just as simple, just as easily understood. Hunt up the facts and you will be astonished to learn how foolishly we waste money at every meal. We buy high-priced oysters having very little food value and ignore cheap cheese that has a high food value. We know what the butcher's and the grocer's bill is, but we seldom know what the food they sell is worth. The facts of this matter are in easy reach. Any young girl of fourteen can from the facts figure out in a few moments the exact food value of everything on the table at any meal. She who will consider these things will be the progressive housekeeper, and her husband will call her blessed among women and the receiving teller at the savings bank will know her well.

THE COUNCIL OF JEWISH WOMEN.

·BY CLARA D. CAMPBELL.

THE Hebrew religion has never admitted women to an equality with men in its privileges and duties, yet its Ruths and Deborahs and Hannahs have ever been ready to carry out its teachings and contend for its supremacy. And now the mothers and sisters in Israel are united for the maintenance and spread of

their historic faith. That this is the great object of the Council of Jewish Women whose convention was recently held in New York was shown in one of the opening addresses of the convention when Mrs. Kohut of New York said: "This working for our religion can be the only reason for our existence. It is for a better knowledge of our

history, our religion, and ourselves as Jews that this council was called into existence."

The Council of Jewish Women grew out of the Women's Congress which convened in Chicago at the time of the Parliament of Religions in 1893. When the rabbis were planning for their part in the parliament the Jewish women asked that provision be made for them as had been for the women of Christian denominations. The rabbis refused and the Jewesses took the matter into their own hands. A committee was formed with Mrs. Hannah G. Solomon, the leader of the movement, at its head. Circular letters were sent to every Jewish community in the United States, stating that a Jewish Women's Congress would be held in Chicago September 4-8, and delegates were appointed to select essayists and arrange for exhibits. The call met with a hearty response, the Jewesses were well represented in the Congress of Women, and the National Council of Jewish Women was formed the same week.

Mrs. Solomon was made president of the new society, an executive board was formed, composed of Chicago women in order that they might meet frequently, and Chicago was designated as the national headquarters. In October, 1894, the work of extending the organization began. For nearly every state a vice-president was named who was instructed to organize a section in every city. Each city section was to be divided into circles for study, philanthropic work, etc.

In the two years since its establishment the organization has grown rapidly and now numbers fifty-one sections with about four thousand members and eighty-seven circles with fifteen hundred members. It has engaged actively in philanthropic work and a large number of schools and clubs for the help of the unfortunate are the

result; among these are two vacation societies caring for eight hundred children.

The first convention of the council, held in New York City from the 15th to the 19th of last November, holds a unique place among conferences of women. Not only was it the first large assemblage of Jewish women in the United States but it was the first instance in Hebrew history in which any considerable body of their women, representing different sections of country, have united in council. About sixty delegates, representing sixteen states and the Dominion of Canada, were in attendance. Three sessions a day were held, most of them in Tuxedo Hall, though for one evening the council received the unusual favor of an invitation to the West End Synagogue.

The convention opened on Sunday evening. Representatives of several other organizations were present to extend fraternal greetings; among them Mary Lowe Dickinson of the National Council of Women of the United States, Dr. Henry Berkowitz, chancellor of the Jewish Chautauqua, and Mrs. Ellen M. Henriotin, president of the General Federation of



MRS. HANNAH G. SOLOMON.
President of the Council of Jewish Women.

Women's Clubs. Mrs. Solomon presided and delivered the principal address of the evening. She spoke of the need of perfecting charity organization and urged that all efforts aim at prevention rather than cure. She dwelt upon the importance of Sabbath-school work, saying that through the school and home woman must wield her greatest power. Her opinion of the purpose of the convention was definitely and clearly expressed in words of which the following are a part:

We are here to pledge faith to the old tradition that women must light the Sabbath lamp, symbolic of the perpetual light of Torah. We have not come to criticize our rabbis but we are aiming to become

intelligent pupils. We are not here to create sentiment or compose a new melody for marching to Jerusalem; nor are we here to destroy faith in any dream or hope. We are not here to advance the cause of orthodoxy or reform, but for the truths of both. A true Jewish womanhood, a Jewish life and home, true to our spiritual inheritance, true to the flag under which we live, faith in God's providence—these are the ties that bind us.

The need of more careful study of the Old Testament Scriptures was referred to again and again during the course of the convention. Mrs. Nellie L. Miller, of Memphis, vice-president for Tennessee, aroused considerable discussion by saying that in this respect members of the council should emulate their Christian sisters and should take a place beside them as their equals.

A paper on "Children, the Hope of the World; Their Needs and Their Training," read by Mrs. Sophie C. Axman, of Kansas City, was considered by many one of the ablest papers of the convention. Mrs. Axman called attention to the important position held by children among the Hebrews in the terse statement, "The Jew was the discoverer of the child," and embodied her theory of child-training in words like these: "The child is a part of nature, not above, nor below, nor outside of it and the culture of the child is the employment of means to secure a normal development."

Through and through, the essays and addresses showed ability and care in their preparation, and were of a practical character, treating of subjects closely connected with council work. As the organization aims to develop latent talent, many of the

younger women were among the essayists.

Routine business necessarily consumed considerable of the convention's time. A few changes were made in the constitution. The word *national* was eliminated from the title of the council. The motto "Faith and Humanity" was adopted, and a badge which must not cost more than fifty cents was decided upon.

A resolution expressing sympathy with the Armenians was lost but one was adopted urging the council to do their utmost to prevent the desecration of the Sabbath and to restore it to its pristine purity.

The following officers were elected: president, Mrs. Hannah G. Solomon, of Chicago; first vice-president, Mrs. Sophia Beer, of New York; second vice-president, Mrs. E. Mandel, of Chicago; corresponding secretary, Miss Sadie American, of Chicago; recording secretary, Miss Gertrude Berg, of Philadelphia; treasurer, Miss Carrie M. Wolf, of Chicago.

Thursday afternoon the delegates were given a reception at Sherry's by the New York section.

For the next convention, to be held in 1899, Denver and Memphis were the principal contestants with the sentiment rather in favor of Denver; but the matter was not decided.

What could afford a better proof of woman's advancement than the organization of so conservative a body of women? And is not the work at which they aim an index of the use which women in general will make of their newly found freedom?

THE TEST OF MANNERS.

BY MARY HARDING INGRAM.

MANNERS make the man, we have heard it said; but the alliteration has done more for the sentence than its small element of truth. The man makes the manners, or the woman compels the attitude, would be the better proverb. True politeness is not a mere coat or gown drawn on to cover infirmities or deformities; it is

a beam of character. To insure politeness, then, we must compass good breeding, a thing which begins in the home and at the cradle.

If I were compelled to express with a single word what it is that the character must have in order to a perfect rendition of politeness, I should say *adjustability*. A

rigid habit, no matter how morally correct in outline, is death to that which gives to a man or a woman the presence of welcome and the expression of being at home with company. Politeness so illuminates conventionality that we see only the radiance and forget the machinery.

Every close observer has been able to detect the difference between manners assumed for an occasion or exigency and the perfectly natural acts of a well-bred person. A man may lift his hat with a movement indicative of generations whose culture and grace form the innermost essence of his character; another may attempt the same and show by it that only yesterday he took his first crude lesson in conventional politeness. It is the same with women. Good manners come of refined home life; they must be worn every day or they will not be worn with ease and unconscious grace. And this unconscious grace is not mere gracefulness; it lies deeper. A gracious soul must shine out.

The man who is boorish and ungracious at home when no stranger is present cannot quite hide the effect of habit when he appears in public with his dress-coat manners on. He forgets to offer his seat to the gray-haired woman on the street-car until he is reminded of his laches by the quick act of the man who is habitually polite; then, too late, he moves and looks abashed. He would like to be thought refined and polite, but his home habit hampers him. Women are perhaps more flexible than men to the sudden demands of social life; but we see every day, in the drawing-rooms, in the street, and at public places evidences of feminine vulgarity which unerringly point to the home life as the source of the trouble.

We must, then, begin with our children and ourselves and rectify manners at the fireside, at the table, and during the round of domestic activities. If the father of a family eats with his knife let him be gently reminded of the bad habit and of its vulgarizing influence. This is an extreme case; but unfortunately it is yet in point. Not a month ago I was dining where a distinguished politician was the guest of honor. To make a long story short, he ate with his knife. That was not

a crime, but it was proof positive of something deplorably lacking in the man's education. His wife, a woman of marked refinement, should have trained him better; possibly he was untrainable, having been neglected in childhood.

There is nothing more noticeable than the wide difference between the manners shown by well-bred women and those displayed by vulgar ones in public places, as for example the railroad car. If a strange gentleman does some act of necessary kindness, like raising a tight window sash or adjusting a refractory seat, for a woman she will, if a lady, thank him quietly and without special show of feeling, and so definitely close the incident. But if she is not a woman of polite attainments she may be effusively grateful and open the way for further talk and an acquaintance based upon vulgarity. You may know the ill-bred girl or woman, in any place, by her loud talking and her frequent laughter. Well-bred people talk well and laugh well, even heartily; but they never attract attention to themselves by making a noise in public places.

There is another quite trying test of good manners, which we may call the "visiting test," as it arises out of one's behavior while under the roof-tree of a friend. A guest may be a great comfort or an unmitigated bore to a household. The well-bred visitor is never perceptibly out of adjustment in her relations with the household circle; she quickly observes the system of domestic and economic procedure and neatly adapts herself to it without comment, hesitancy, or blunder. She instinctively knows just when to be visible and when to keep her room. She rises when the family rises, is promptly ready for each meal, and never suggests even the slightest change in the social and other arrangements made for her entertainment.

When you consent to be a guest politeness exacts from you absolute submission to your hostess and the most facile agreement to what she decrees. All of this is implied when you accept her invitation. And you never overstay or understay the time for which your invitation provides. A

week is seven days, not five days, not nine days. To go before your visit is out is a tacit adverse criticism of your entertainment; to overstay is to confess yourself a "greenhorn" who has never heard of propriety. Of course unforeseen circumstances may excuse a breach of the rule; but the circumstances must be imperative or at least sufficient.

A polite person never "argues a point" in company; it is vulgar to take the "other side" of a question and thus force controversy or stop conversation as if with a bang. Diplomacy without duplicity is the soul of good manners. In a word, honest tact goes a long way toward the mark of polite behavior. But tact must not be obvious. Indeed obvious manners are, like over-decorated clothes, too showy to seem natural and fitting. Long practise forms habit which sits upon the wearer like a perfect coat or gown or hat; the act is done with the unconscious ease of breathing or walking. If the habit is vulgar it suggests ill breeding from the beginning; if it is refined we scarcely observe it, it blends so smoothly with our sense of propriety. The fixed and unchangeable habit of politeness, then, is what should be the aim of culture in manners.

To set this habit perfectly it must be laid like an ineradicable dye in character. Politeness is not mere mannerism; it flows out of right feeling and right thinking. One must be broad, open, generous, and fine tempered in order to reflect the charm of truly gentle manners. Courtesy goes deeper than mere cold, correct conventionality. Out of the heart comes a waft of comfort and a gracious influence quite nameless. There is no effusiveness or emphasis or anxiety in being polite, there is nothing but recognition of the natural goodness of life.

It would seem that the surest road to excellent manners is by way of generous enlightenment which softens character and uplifts the point of view from which we regard our fellow-citizens of the world.

Politeness is regard for the other person's feelings. If you are solicitous about giving pleasure to those you meet there is little danger of any glaring breach of manners, albeit some conventional rule may be infringed. An unselfish purpose rarely offends. Almost always the truly vulgar person is offensively selfish. He wants his own way; she demands notice; the obvious thing in this person's conduct is assumption of personal importance, as if expecting admiration and exceptional treatment from everybody. Politeness is a mark of self-control and a proof of self-sufficiency for any occasion; but from it is quite absent any anxiety about one's self or the impression one is making upon others.

Here, then, is the key to good manners: generous home life, a constant regard for the feelings of others, liberal reading, association with cultivated people, habitual self-denial, without giving up any moral, religious, political, or social right, and a never-failing simplicity of act and expression. Outward gentleness, inward reserve, no extreme of statement, attitude, or apparel, these are badges of good breeding. For the well-bred woman does not have a Delsartean way of posing; she never speaks with the manner of an actress on the stage; nor does she dress like a fashion-plate. The fact is, she does not attract criticism or unusual remark in any way. The woman who, at any function of a social nature, is the "center of attraction" to a marked extreme is rarely one to be taken as a model.

Politeness does not harbor a desire to shine, to rule, to lead; it is content with perfect harmony and gentleness, and the reciprocal enjoyment of enlightened life. There can be no politeness without taking the other person into first regard, and there cannot be good manners through which even the slightest ray of selfishness, no matter how dim, is cast upon one's motives. In the social arena the fight is not for a personal triumph but for a successful blending of genial equalities.

CURRENT HISTORY AND OPINION.*

THE CUBAN WAR.



GENERAL DON VALERIANO WEYLER.
Commander of the Spanish Forces in Cuba.

del Rio. Gomez has not been idle all this time. In the middle of November he sent skirmishers from the eastern part of the island into the provinces of Matanzas and Havana, where they battled with the Spanish and threatened General Weyler's army from the rear. Spain finally has succeeded in raising one hundred eighteen million dollars, the money having been contributed by her loyal subjects. The American consul-general, Fitz-Hugh Lee, has now given his report on the Cuban situation to Secretary Olney but refuses to discuss the matter. Cuban belligerency has been recognized by the republic of Bolivia.

The Times. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

The severance of Cuba from Spain is an accomplished fact, and it is only a question what additional butchery and additional devastation of property shall be necessary to make Spain confess what the whole world has known for months past, and what Spain must learn in the end. The time is very close at hand when this government must assert itself in the cause of humanity by some form of interposition in the barbarous conflict in Cuba.

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

The hopelessness of the attempt to conquer the patriots is now manifest. Spain has put forth her supreme efforts, and they are vain. How long shall we suffer the ruin of the island to go on, without an effort to stop it, when the acknowledgment of Cuba's independence, on proper terms, might restore peace, prosperity, and content to both Cuba and Spain?

Times-Union. (Jacksonville, Fla.)

Dispatches from Washington indicate that there is at least a possibility of a war with Spain. The

CAPTAIN-GENERAL WEYLER has at last ventured out of his castle at Havana. With a large army he embarked on November 10 for the Province of Pinar del Rio. After marching up the hills to encounter General Maceo he returned on November 23 to Havana, avowedly to attend to affairs that devolved on him as governor-general of the island. He announced himself well satisfied with the results of his excursion. According to accounts of his battles received by way of Key West, Fla., General Weyler, pursuing Maceo's forces, was led into a dynamite trap, in which hundreds of his men were blown to their death and thousands of them wounded; the Spaniards then retreated to Havana, harassed by the insurgents. After a short sojourn at Havana General Weyler returned on November 26 to the province of Pinar



GENERAL JOSÉ MACEO.
Leader of the Cuban Revolutionists.

people of this country have no desire for international strife, and especially with such a weak power as Spain. If honor is at stake, there is, of course, no other alternative; but to fight Spain and to defeat her would hardly reflect credit upon this country. Of course the Cuban question would be the prime cause of any declaration of war that might be made by either side, but the United States is not the nation to take the initiative. If Spain imagines that she has been insulted she has a perfect right to notify Uncle Sam that she intends to lick him immediately.

Pittsburg Commercial Gazette. (Pa.)

The semi-official explanations in connection with his return to Havana do not lessen the right of the insurgents and those who sympathize with them to regard Weyler's return from the regions of sunburn to the shelter of the palace as the equivalent of an insurgent victory. He did not succeed in killing or capturing the game he went after.

Baltimore American. (Md.)

The impression is growing that President Cleveland will in a few weeks take decisive steps to end the war in Cuba. The return of the bloodthirsty Weyler to Havana without doing anything what-

* This department, together with the book "The Growth of the French Nation," constitutes a special C. L. S. C. course, for the reading of which a seal is given.

ever to reduce the Cuban patriots to subjection confirms this impression and makes action by the government of the United States almost a certainty. Of course such interference can have but one purpose and one result—the independence of Cuba. The American people are practically a unit on that subject. They will not tolerate any half measures.

Cincinnati Enquirer. (O.)

Spain complains that Cuba gets aid from the people of the United States. Could Spain reasonably expect anything else? Let Spain acknowledge a state of war and blockade the coast if she doesn't like the way our people do. . . . No doubt there will be a fresh breaking out of hatred for the United States in Spain in consequence of Weyler's returning to Havana without a victorious wreath on his brow. There is much threatening at Madrid, and now we are assured that Spain will have strong backing from Europe if she goes to war with the United States.

The Atlanta Constitution. (Ga.)

It is a strange fate which makes Spain, which at one time was the center of European civilization, now lag in the rear, verging back almost into the depths of savagery, delighting in unusual and vicious punishments, refusing to recognize the laws of humanity or the force of public opinion, and indifferent to every consideration save the one overweening sin of vanity, which has been the curse of the Spanish race. For this reason, if there were none other, it becomes a matter of humanity to drive Spain from the shores of America.

The Times-Democrat. (New Orleans, La.)

Whether the United States intervene amicably or with force of arms between Spain and her rebellious colony, it is the opinion of the London *Times'* correspondent that not only will no objection or protest come from any European nation but that all of them, even those holding Spain's Cuban bonds, will be pleased with such intervention. For thereby will be assured peace for the future, which can never be assured while the relations of sovereign and subject remain between Spain and Cuba.

Zion's Herald. (Boston, Mass.)

Spain has spent \$200,000,000; the Cubans only \$2,000,000. Spain has 200,000 rifles; the Cubans only 40,000. But Spain's credit is so low that she cannot sell 4 per cent gold bonds at 60; "the rebellion is fed by gifts at par."

New York Mail and Express. (N. Y.)

Nobody can question the sincerity of Spanish patriotism as shown in the subscriptions to the recent popular loan. The Spaniards are terribly in earnest in their determination to reconquer Cuba, but they are warring against destiny. Cuba is lost to them, and the spending of further millions in the attempt to regain the island is simply throwing good money after bad.

The Chicago Tribune. (Ill.)

Spain has lost province after province, until now she holds possession of only one or two, and those precariously. And yet Mr. Cleveland and Secretary Olney have not discovered that fighting is going on and that there is a condition of belligerency on the island. Without paying any regard to the Spanish minister's silly bluster, the American people are aching for the inauguration of the McKinley administration, so that it may put an end to this miserable business if it shall not be ended before that time.

The Inter-Ocean. (Chicago, Ill.)

In this campaign the operations of the Cubans in Puerto-Principe, or in the eastern provinces, will not help General Maceo, who must depend for his supplies on the mountainous country and on such vessels as may sneak into the harbors on the northern coast to the west of Havana.

The Tribune. (Minneapolis, Minn.)

If they [the insurgents] would come out and fight in the open, Spain with her superior and well-disciplined forces could easily conquer them. Under present conditions Spain is powerless, and must sooner or later succumb. Any triumph she might win would be temporary. Cuban rebellions will never cease until the island is freed from that hated and tyrannical rule under which it can hope for no real progress or development.

Providence Journal. (R. I.)

If Gomez should make a bold attack upon some important eastern town it might visibly disconcert General Weyler and his plans, though the campaign has almost been left to run itself at that end of the island, in view of the menacing proximity of Maceo to Havana. And if, as is more probable, Gomez should undertake the hazardous task of joining Maceo, the Spanish general would find himself between two fires and the situation would be doubly complicated.

Ohio State Journal. (Columbus.)

The action of Bolivia in recognizing the belligerency of the Cubans is important as showing the feeling in the South American republics toward the people who are struggling for the right of self-government. Bolivia has no seaports to defend against the naval power of Spain, but her people are friendly to Cuba and have declared themselves so at a time when it cannot but be a benefit to the insurgents.

The Seattle Post-Intelligencer. (Wash.)

The Spanish government will never take the initiative [in going to war with the United States] and it is hardly within the bounds of possibility that Mr. Cleveland, in the closing hours of his administration, would commit this country to such a course, which would be in direct contradiction to his entire previous policy in dealing with the Cuban question.

SCIENCE AND THE BLIND.

ON November 19 last one Dr. Waverly Clarke, a physician of San Francisco, California, authorized the statement that Lucien Bacigalupi, a totally blind boy, was able to see objects by the use of the cathode ray. The boy's father conducts a phonograph and kinetoscope establishment and in this connection has an X-ray apparatus. Dr. Clarke and the boy visited the X-ray room to ascertain if he could see anything. The boy had been totally blind for fourteen years but as soon as the fluoroscope was applied to his eyes he declared that he could see. He was able to distinguish objects but without the X ray he was as blind as ever. Dr. Clarke states that there was probably a film over the boy's eyes which it was impossible to penetrate by ordinary lights but which was pierced by the powerful rays.

Mr. Thomas A. Edison has recently experimented in this direction. He had two subjects, both blind, from Newark, N. J. Many tubes were tried, each with increased strength, and finally the subjects were able to distinguish flashes; one of the men was able, after a time, to say when the light was turned on and off. Mr. Edison's best results were obtained with a red globe. The scientists have thus broken ground in a new field and the result of their investigation is closely observed. Mr. Edison has accomplished so much that was beyond the hope of mankind thirty years ago—the telephone, phonograph, kinetoscope, and incandescent lamps—that it is hoped his present experiments may be successful and that he may round out the age end of our present century by enabling the blind to see.

The Baltimore Sun. (Md.)

On the basis of experiments made recently in his laboratory with Roentgen rays Mr. Thomas A. Edison, the famous inventor, rests a promise to the blind that within three years they shall be enabled to see, provided they have the optic nerve intact. If not given distinct vision they will at least be delivered from the gloom that encompasses them and feel the thrill of light. In his experiments with two men whose sight had been destroyed by abscesses he succeeded in enabling them to see. One of them, when confronted with strong Roentgen rays, exclaimed: "I see millions of points before my eyes like sparks." The other declared: "I can see a light." This from men who had for years dwelt in utter darkness.

The Pittsburg Post. (Pa.)

The experiments have not been advanced so as to obtain definite results, and will not be for some time, but the leading physicians interviewed by the New York papers are inclined to be decidedly incredulous. They declare that while it is possible that impressions of light may be obtained, provided the optic nerve is all right, the destruction of the retina of the eye removes the mirror in which the forms of surrounding objects are taken cognizance of, and this fact precludes, except perhaps in exceptional cases, any relief to the blind.

The Burlington Hawkeye. (Iowa.)

It is a great promise which the celebrated inventor makes, and he takes a great responsibility. It would be very cruel if the bright hopes which this announcement raises in the minds of the sightless were to be disappointed.

New York Herald. (N. Y.)

Mr. Edison is of opinion that any such thing as complete sight to the blind is out of the question, but he feels sure that an alleviation of their condition will be effected. It is, he thinks, entirely

within the field of probability that the blind may be enabled to read by means of metal plates, in which the letters shall be illuminated by the light of the Roentgen rays. More than this Mr. Edison is not at present prepared to say. His general statement, however, is as follows: "The blind, that class of men who possess intact nerves but deficient eyes, will be made to see, and that within three years. I shall now devote myself to specially prepared X rays that will, I feel sure, answer the purpose. Of course I do not claim that those blind will be enabled to read, but they will be able to distinguish persons and things."

The Boston Journal. (Mass.)

The facts are, the blind were not made to see, and Mr. Edison will not devote himself to the work of restoring wasted vision. This is Mr. Edison's statement: "A week ago last night I had been several hours in a dark room experimenting on the X ray. My eyes were very sensitive, as I had a powerful tube. I noticed that when my eyes were shut I saw the passage of my hand. I then blindfolded myself with my hand entirely. Then I could see the movement of my other hand. This, with other experiments, I sent to the electrical engineer, New York, last week. It naturally occurred to me that it might be possible for people afflicted with blindness of a peculiar kind, such as cataract, to see moving objects with the X ray. On Monday my attention was called to a telegram from San Francisco, in which it was stated that a colored boy had been enabled to see by means of the X ray. It was suggested that two blind men be brought to try the experiment. This was done, and experiments were tried on Tuesday night with different kinds of tubes. There were some favorable results. This was all that there was accomplished at that time, the men saying that they could distinguish little points of light."

THE VENEZUELAN DISPUTE SETTLED.



UNITED STATES
SECRETARY OF STATE OLNEY.

boundary line between British Guiana and Venezuela. This tribunal is to be composed of two members who may be judges of the United States Supreme Court, nominated by that court, and two members who may be members of the British High Court of Justice, nominated by that body. A fifth member is to be selected by the other four or, in case they cannot agree within three months, by the King of Sweden. This fifth member is to be president of the tribunal. The arbitrators are to be guided in their decision by the principles of international law and the following rule: exclusive political control or actual settlement of a district during a period of fifty years shall make good the title to the district. December 7 Secretary Olney received a telegram from minister Andrade at Caracas, to the effect that Venezuela accepts the terms of the treaty. In the meantime the Venezuelan Commission has continued its work and has collected a vast amount of historical data which it expects to have ready for publication in about two months.

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

No other European state will try to surmount the barrier which has proved impassable to even the earth hunger of Great Britain. It matters nothing



PRESIDENT CRESPO OF VENEZUELA.

to us henceforth that the Monroe Doctrine is no principle of international jurisprudence, sanctioned by congresses of the powers and embedded in the text of treaties. It is something better than a law,

"THE Venezuelan boundary question has ceased to be a matter of difference between Great Britain and the United States, their respective governments having agreed upon the substantial provisions of a treaty between Great Britain and Venezuela, submitting the whole controversy to arbitration." Thus President Cleveland in his message confirms the reports of the adjustment of the Venezuelan boundary dispute. The terms of the treaty are substantially as follows: An arbitral tribunal is to be immediately appointed to determine the



KING OSCAR II. OF SWEDEN AND NORWAY.

because laws are often broken; it is a notorious, ineffaceable, indestructible fact.

The Boston Herald. (Mass.)

One risks little in saying that the war scare started last December, with the paralyzation of business that it occasioned, has cost the American people two or three times over the capitalized value of the entire republic of Venezuela. We have paid a tremendous price to assert a principle which may or may not have been one of value to our country.

Chicago Journal. (Ill.)

Never again will a European nation put forth claims to American territory without consulting the government of the United States. The Monroe Doctrine is now a part of international law beyond dispute, and it is the doctrine according to the most recent construction put upon it by this country.

The Times. (Richmond, Va.)

We never had any business to meddle with the matter, and any agreement whatever that gets us out of the false position we were put into is one that is creditable to us. But it cannot be denied that the settlement agreed upon is substantially what Lord Salisbury offered at the outset.

The News. (London, England.)

Not the least satisfactory thing about the com-

promise is that it will enable both sides to claim a victory. Lord Salisbury can claim having protected the rights of British settlers. Mr. Olney can claim with literal truth that he has succeeded in bringing Great Britain to arbitration.

The Times. (London, England.)

It need scarcely be said that the right of interference involves responsibility. If the United States espouse the quarrels of petty republics they are bound to compel the republics to fulfil their engagements. Such a general protectorate, if executed in the equitable manner which the Washington cabinet may be expected to adopt, may go far to enforce the principles of national honor and honesty in quarters where now they are often very imperfectly observed.

The Chronicle. (London, England.)

If popular rejoicing were always directed to

proper ends every town in Great Britain and America would be decorated to-day in honor of this victory of international wisdom. This is the embodiment of the message of Bethlehem.

Toronto Globe. (Canada.)

Venezuela is another milestone on the way to international concord, for the more frequently these disputes are settled in a court room the more difficult it will become to arouse war feeling when disputes arise.

Baltimore American. (Md.)

If the British prime minister were free to act as he pleased it would be rash to expect any concessions; but there has rarely been a time in British history when England was so completely isolated as she is to-day. Every power in Europe seems to be against her and to be meditating action hostile to her interests in some direction or other.

WOMEN IN THE RECENT CAMPAIGN.



MRS. MARTHA HUGHES CANNON
State Senator of Utah.

were more successful. Places in the lower house of the legislature were won by three of them, Mrs. Martha A. B. Conine, Mrs. Olive C. Butler, and Mrs. Evangeline Heartz. The important position of superintendent of instruction was accorded to Professor Grace Espy Patton. The greatest victory was gained by Mrs. Martha Hughes Cannon of Utah, who defeated her husband in the race for a state senatorship by a majority of 4,000 votes. Mrs. Cannon is a Democrat while her husband is a Republican. She will be the first woman state senator in the United States.

The Baltimore Sun. (Md.)

While woman suffrage has made no headway in the East and South, it has captured at least four western states, namely, Colorado, Utah, Idaho and Wyoming. It is stated that sixty per cent of the voters of Utah are women, although that may possibly be too high an estimate. Exactly how many female votes were cast for the silver candidate in Colorado, Wyoming, and Utah cannot of course be indicated; still, if the election of Mr. McKinley or of Mr. Bryan had depended upon the result in any one of these states it is possible that the male voters

in other sections of the country might have been so ungallant as to protest against the result. In fact there would doubtless have been an appeal to the courts if the lawyers had been of the opinion that the case was one which called for judicial consideration and determination. Fortunately that issue was not raised, and as Mrs. Cannon has a clear majority over her husband she will be allowed to take her seat in the Utah Senate without contest and, possibly, to vote for a free-coinage senator when the time comes for Utah to elect a representative to the United States Senate.

THE TURKISH QUESTION.

THERE seems to be at last some prospect of a permanent settlement of the Turkish question. After M. Hanotaux's speech in the French Chamber of Deputies the sultan issued a proclamation containing ten decrees of reforms. Four of these, including the election of a new Armenian patriarch, have been put into effect, but a great obstacle to the speedy enforcement of all the decrees may have been the condition of the Turkish treasury. According to recent reports Russia and Great Britain have joined France in deciding upon a plan of action to which Italy, Germany, and Austria have assented. The exact terms of the policy are not yet announced, but France, Russia, and Great Britain have agreed to force the sultan to execute radical reforms under the supervision of the powers and, if necessary to enforce their demands, to assemble their fleets at the entrance to the Dardanelles. The position of Russia makes this a simple matter for her. Reports of massacres and depredations still continue and in spite of the relief rendered by the Red Cross Society many thousands are yet destitute.

The Times-Union. (Jacksonville, Fla.)

It seems that the end of the Turkish Empire is rapidly approaching. The Armenian atrocities have attracted the attention of the entire civilized world, and incidental to the investigation as to the outrages upon these defenseless people it has been revealed that the sultan is in sore straits for money, and further that he has little chance of securing a sufficient advance to last him for any length of time. It seems that the masses of the sultan's subjects are absolutely destitute, and great distress now exists in the cities of the empire.

The Rhode Island Country Journal. (Providence.)

It is suggested that the report of the Armenian Red Cross expedition contains such evidence of the genuine nature of the sultan's sympathy for the cause that it will win favor for the Turkish officials. Possibly it will. But the announcement in the graphic story of the expedition that there are 200,000 Armenians who will perish this winter unless they are assisted will neutralize any very cordial feelings for the unfortunate sovereign and his obedient servants.

The Boston Journal. (Mass.)

The massacre of Christians in Armenia and Turkey still continues and scarcely a week passes

without a report of further outrages. Why the civilized nations of Europe should permit such a deplorable condition of affairs to exist in Turkey is hard for an American to understand. . . . Russia is so situated geographically that she desires to control Turkey, and she has the physical force to do so, and to put a stop to these outrages. She has been eager and willing for many years to assume this control and to govern Turkey. The other European powers have been unwilling to allow Russia to do this, because if Russia controlled Turkey and Constantinople it would give her a southern seaport which would enable her fleets to . . . enter upon the Mediterranean.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

Perhaps the greatest obstacle to prompt reforms is the state of the Turkish treasury, which is well-nigh bankrupt. It has been found necessary to cut down by fifteen per cent the salaries of all public servants, though they were before this reduction by no means high; and even now the government is some months in arrears with its pay-roll. Russia has agreed to postpone the payment of one half the war indemnity due to her, and that fact has afforded some little relief, but not enough to put Turkish finances on a sound basis.

THE PRESIDENT'S MESSAGE.

ON December 7 President Cleveland submitted his last annual message to Congress. It was a document containing about 18,000 words. Unusual interest was manifest from the fact that our State Department has for some time been engrossed in diplomatic affairs of an exceedingly delicate and grave nature, the most notable being those of Venezuela and Cuba. The president says that the Venezuelan boundary has ceased to be a matter of difference between Great Britain and the United States, each having agreed upon a treaty submitting the whole to arbitration, the provisions of which are so eminently fair and just that a successful and satisfactory culmination of the whole affair may confidently be anticipated.

From the nature of things Cuba receives considerable attention. The condition confronted for now some two years in Cuba continues with its attendant anxieties and it is pointed out that little progress, if any, has been made either by Spain in restoring her authority or by the Cubans in establishing their freedom and independence. The point of vital interest wherein the attitude of the United States is clearly defined lies in the pointed statement of the president, which is: "When the inability of Spain to deal successfully with the insurrection has become manifest, and it is demonstrated that her sovereignty

is extinct in Cuba for all purposes of its rightful existence, and when a hopeless struggle for its reestablishment has degenerated into a strife which means nothing more than the useless sacrifice of human life and the utter destruction of the very subject matter of the conflict, a situation will be presented in which our obligations to the sovereignty of Spain will be superseded by higher obligations, which we can hardly hesitate to recognize and discharge. Deferring the choice of ways and methods until the time for action arrives, we should make them depend upon the precise conditions then existing, and they should not be determined upon without giving careful heed to every consideration involving our honor and interest and the international duty we owe to Spain. Until we face the contingencies suggested, or the situation is by other incidents imperatively changed, we should continue in the line of conduct heretofore pursued, thus in all circumstances exhibiting our obedience to the requirements of the public law and our regard for the duty enjoined upon us by the position we occupy in the family of nations."

President Cleveland then turns his attention to our internal and domestic affairs and details them at length, making from time to time such recommendations and suggestions as in his judgment will inure to the economical, practical, and expeditious workings of our governmental, executive, and administrative affairs. The opinion as reflected by a conservative press, both at home and abroad, is that it is a state document strictly in accordance with our already established principles, and one which neither proposes nor anticipates any innovation or radical movement in our governmental structure. Its general nature is pacific, which presages the assurance of our continued prosperity.

(*Dem.*) *The Sun.* (*New York, N. Y.*)

The last message which Mr. Cleveland will ever write as president adds little to the public knowledge concerning any of the great questions that effect this country in its exterior relations or its domestic policy. While one important subject after another is taken up, the conclusion in every case is the same: postponed until after the 4th of next March. The foremost domestic question, that of the startling inadequacy of our revenue, is discussed by Mr. Cleveland as cheerfully as if he had nothing to do with the direful situation confronting us. Only two men that ever lived could have written it, and Mr. Pecksniff is dead.

(*Rep.*) *The Inter-Ocean.* (*Chicago, Ill.*)

The message is largely taken up with summarizing the reports of the several heads of departments and seconding their suggestions. None of these details are of any very great importance. The first general discussion of interest relates to Cuba. There is a deal of indefinite discussion. Grover Cleveland illustrates the law of heredity by a strong penchant for preaching, only his homilies are based on current events for texts. The substance of all is that he is not prepared to do anything toward restoring peace on that unhappy island, but he thinks the time may come when the United States ought to call a halt on the butchery and devastation now going on.

(*Dem.*) *The Buffalo Enquirer.* (*N. Y.*)

The position taken by President Cleveland in regard to Armenian affairs seems to be sound and sensible, though the tone of what he says is not quite in harmony with his previous utterances on the same subject.

(*Rep.*) *New York Tribune.* (*N. Y.*)

The most hopeful note in the whole discussion is that which most closely approximates to menace. The president repeats what has been said so many times by his predecessors, that this country would

not tolerate the transfer of Cuba to any other sovereignty than that of Spain. The island must remain Spanish or become independent, or pass into our own possession. Then he adds significantly that while this government should continue to be patient, its patience may presently be exhausted.

(*Ind.*) *Public Ledger.* (*Philadelphia, Pa.*)

The president's position is one which is likely to be sustained by the best thought of the country.

(*Ind.*) *Pittsburg Dispatch.* (*Pa.*)

In commenting on this last message of President Cleveland we should not fail to do credit to his honesty of purpose and his independence in standing for what he believes to be right. But his failure to meet the needs of the time on the Cuban question, and his hopeless obfuscation on the currency question, make it satisfactory to reflect that the views which the message presents are not those which will govern the future policy of the United States.

London Times. (*England.*)

The tone and spirit of the message are worthy of all praise. President Cleveland gives his countrymen the soundest advice in the most unexceptionable language, nor can the least complaint be made of the character of the warnings he addresses to Spain, though it is not improbable that Spanish pride will take offense. It is clear that President Cleveland is actuated by friendly feelings toward Spain. It would be wise for the latter to consider whether it could not avail itself of the president's offer of aid in settling the Cuban trouble.

London Daily Times. (*England.*)

While the intentions of Mr. Cleveland and Mr. Olney may be everything that is good, the opinion of Europe is not favorable to the latest version of the Monroe Doctrine, and Spain will have influential support if she holds out. So long ago as last February, two months after the Venezuelan message, Congress passed resolutions in favor of

recognizing the Cubans as belligerents. The president did not act upon those resolutions, and he will not act upon them now. It is believed that his successor will follow his example, but the continental press has become very sensitive on the subject of American pretensions and the message is likely to meet with rather sharp comment. Lord Salisbury is thought to have yielded far too much and there will be many voices urging Spain to the policy of "no surrender." It is to be hoped they will not prevail. Home rule in Cuba would be the best thing for the Cubans and for Spain. The contest is ruinous and indecisive. Such a solution of it would be final and satisfactory. After all, Americans are an extremely practical people.

The Standard. (London, England.)

It [the president's message] is dignified and able, and it is marked throughout with sterling common sense. It deserves and will doubtless obtain the serious study of the European people.

The Daily Telegraph. (London, England.)

The message deals with great moderation and in a most conciliatory spirit with a thorny problem. The president declined altogether to yield to the solicitations of American jingoes, who would at once recognize the insurgents as belligerents. He knows too well that the triumph of the rebels would mean the establishment of black and half-breed ascendancy in Cuba. On the other hand, he recog-

nizes that the failure of the Spanish authorities to reestablish law and order in the island must lead to its ultimate ruin, and to the complete dislocation of the commercial intercourse which necessarily subsists between Cuba and its nearest neighbors. He suggests therefore to Spain, in terms that cannot offend the susceptibility of the most sensitive people in the world, that that monarchy should grant autonomy to Cuba, and that the United States should bring the insurgents to reason. It was, perhaps, a pity that this open invitation should have been accompanied by a menace, even though the menace is couched in courteous terms. The alternatives are submitted in best Castilian style, but translated into brutal Anglo-Saxon they mean, "Hurry up, General Weyler, or call us in to settle the matter." This country has no direct interest in the quarrel, but as friends of Spain as well as of the United States we should recommend Spain to choose the latter alternative.

Chicago Record. (Ill.)

President Cleveland has been so persistent in recommending the retirement of the greenbacks that not much that was new was left for him to say on the subject in his last annual message. Nevertheless he makes it clear that he believes the greenback, which was adopted by the government as a temporary device in time of war, is to-day the most dangerous element in our financial system.

BISMARCK'S DISCLOSURES.



PRINCE BISMARCK.

Agenzia Italiana. (Rome, Italy.)

The Italian government was fully aware of the existence of this Russo-German neutrality agreement, and did not object to it. It has never interfered with the treaties of the Triple Alliance, for

THE discussion regarding the so-called "Bismarck revelations" has not ceased to agitate the press and has now reached the halls of the German Reichstag. Late in October the Hamburg *Nachrichten*, Prince Bismarck's organ, published a statement to the effect that between the years 1886 and 1890 a treaty existed between Germany and Russia binding each to a benevolent neutrality in case the other were attacked by a third party. The motives impelling Prince Bismarck to the disclosure of what the Berlin *Imperial Gazette* (a government organ) terms "the strictest secrets of state" have been variously interpreted. His enemies accuse him of infidelity to German interests and a desire to weaken the Triple Alliance. His friends assert that he was simply defending his policy while chancellor from the charge of having caused estrangement with Russia. It was in 1890 that he ceased to be chancellor and the *Nachrichten* ascribes the recent alliance between Russia and France to the failure of his successor (Count Caprivi) to renew the treaty with Russia. The bearing of the disclosure on the Triple Alliance has also been much commented upon.

that combination has been formed for exclusively defensive purposes. All this row over these revelations is unnecessary, and the hope of the French press that the Triple Alliance will be shaken is not likely to become realized.

Hamburger Nachrichten. (Germany.)

Why should Bismarck try to destroy the Triple Alliance, which is his own individual work? The understanding with Russia only insured Russia's neutrality in case of an unprovoked attack upon Germany on the part of France, and Germany's neutrality if Austria were to attack Russia. The latter possibility is very remote, and Bismarck has always used his influence to prevent quarrels between Austria and Russia. If Austria and Italy had not been satisfied with this agreement between Russia and Germany they would have objected.

Neue Freie Presse. (Vienna, Austria.)

The publication of the treaty has had no immediate practical effect upon the present policy and feeling prevailing in influential political quarters in Austria. We do not believe that the explosive hurled by Bismarck at the Triple Alliance will burst in Germany and undermine the security of existing mutual relations.

Figaro. (Paris, France.)

Bismarck wished to use Russia to crush the western powers, but the results of the Franco-German War opened Russia's eyes. Bismarck was the only man who could not see this, and this was the main cause of his fall, for Emperor William II. is much better informed than his erstwhile chancellor.

The Graphic. (London, England.)

The statement that while at the head of an alliance largely directed against Russia Prince Bismarck himself had a secret agreement with the common foe is quite in harmony with the unscrupulous diplomacy of the man who, during the existence of the Dreikaiserbund [Triple Alliance] negotiated a secret treaty with one of his allies directed against the other. The story, however, does not accord with known historical facts.

Horne News. (London, England.)

Prince Bismarck himself in 1888, long before Count von Caprivi came to the front, admitted that he had endeavored in vain to maintain "the old confidential relations" with Russia. As futile now as then are the Russophile aspirations of Germany.

The idea that a grand European coalition against England can be organized is at once the measure of Germany's hostility to England and of Germany's practical isolation. She disturbs the peace of her allies to no purpose, and in seeking to isolate England isolates herself.

The Philadelphia Record. (Pa.)

After all, the terms of the Russo-German treaty, which has been discovered to have existed from 1884 to 1890, do not give sufficient warrant for the hysterics indulged in by the Dreibunders. Although the negotiations for the formation of the Dreibund were begun in 1882, they were not completed until 1887, when the pact between Germany, Austria, and Italy was signed, sealed, and delivered. That Bismarck should have sought in the interim to secure the neutrality of Russia in the event of a war between Germany and France is not at all surprising. His promise to maintain neutrality on the part of Germany in the emergency of an attack upon Russia by Austria was not inimical to the provisions of the Dreibund treaty; on the contrary, it was strictly in accord with the latter, which provided only for an alliance for defensive and not for aggressive purposes.

The Times-Democrat. (New Orleans, La.)

The German government, it should be said, has acted in a very quiet and dignified way in connection with Bismarck's disclosure of state secrets during his chancellorship. It refused in the first place to prosecute Bismarck for his *mala fides*, although Bismarck's own relentless prosecution of Count von Arnim under somewhat similar circumstances would have furnished a precedent for such action; and to that refusal the government, to its credit be it said, has steadily adhered in spite of further aggravations of the case from the ex-chancellor in the interim. The government further declined to give any particulars as to the nature or duration of the Russo-German treaty in question, contenting itself merely with the remark that there were inaccuracies in the account as published but that it would not dignify the discreditable disclosures by correcting them.

COMPARATIVE STRENGTH OF THE UNITED STATES ARMY AND NAVY.

THE annual reports of Secretary of War Lamont and Secretary of the Navy Herbert put new emphasis on the old question of the advisability of raising the army and navy to a strength sufficient for the defense of the country. In his report Secretary Lamont does not fully indorse Major-general Nelson A. Miles' recommendation for an increase in the army at the rate of one recruit for every two thousand population, but he does consider an addition to the artillery as necessary for the new coast defenses. According to his report the army now comprises 25,426 officers and men, which is only 284 less than the legal limit. The militia numbers 111,887. Of these the artillerymen, officers included, number only 4,936, scattered over thirty-four states. Secretary Herbert asks for an increase of 1,000 men in the navy, also for new battle-ships and torpedo boats. The modesty of this request is demonstrated by figures showing that this country ranks third in battle-ships, having much less than half the number possessed by England and less than France, while having but slight advantage over Russia, Germany, and Italy; it ranks third in cruisers, first in coast-defense craft, and sixth or lower in torpedo craft.

The Evening Post. (New York, N.Y.)

A parliamentary naval report just published in England differs essentially from most of the tables published recently to show the relative strength of the fleets of Europe. According to this document, which distinguishes battle-ships, cruisers, coast-defense vessels, torpedo vessels, torpedo destroyers, and torpedo boats, whether built or building, Great Britain in June had 45 battle-ships, 18 armored cruisers, 87 protected cruisers, 16 unprotected cruisers, 15 coast-defense vessels, 3 special vessels, 35 torpedo vessels, 42 torpedo-boat destroyers, and 3 first-class torpedo boats, all built; and 12 battle-ships, 28 protected cruisers, and 48 torpedo-boat destroyers building. France had 29 battle-ships, 9 armored cruisers, 23 protected cruisers, 20 unprotected cruisers, 14 coast-defense vessels (armored), 1 special vessel, 13 torpedo vessels, and 4 torpedo boats, all built; and 6 battle-ships, 1 armored cruiser, 14 protected cruisers, 3 torpedo vessels, and 2 torpedo boats building. Russia had 10 battle-ships, 9 armored cruisers, 2 protected cruisers, 3 unprotected cruisers, 12 armored coast-defense vessels, 4 special vessels, 16 torpedo vessels, 2 torpedo-boat destroyers, and 3 torpedo boats, all built; and 8 battle-ships, 2 armored cruisers, 3 protected cruisers, 4 armored coast-defense vessels, 1 special vessel, 1 torpedo vessel, and 1 torpedo boat building. Germany had 21 battle-ships, 7 protected cruisers, 22 unprotected cruisers, 11 coast-defense vessels, 1 special vessel, 5 torpedo vessels, and 4 torpedo boats, all built; and 3 battle-ships, 1 armored cruiser, 6 protected cruisers, and 3 torpedo boats building. Italy had 13 battle-ships, 1 armored cruiser, 15 protected cruisers, 1 unprotected cruiser, 2 special vessels, 15 torpedo vessels, and 3 torpedo boats, all built; and 2 battle-ships, 5 armored cruisers, 1 protected cruiser, 3 torpedo vessels, 1 torpedo-boat destroyer, and one torpedo boat building.

Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

The systematic, moderate increase of the army is not an unreasonable proposition, and is worthy the attention of Congress. We must rely mainly upon this arm of the public service in periods of extraordinary turbulence within the country, and the small regular army would form the nucleus of the military strength of the nation should we become involved in a war with a foreign country.

The Argus. (Albany, N.Y.)

The historian will recount as the chief achievement of Colonel Lamont's administration of the War Department, and as by no means the least achievement of the administration of which it is a part, the notable advance in seacoast defenses. His tireless energy and great administrative capacity have been directed to the protecting of our vast unprotected coast line from the assaults of an enemy.

The Times-Herald. (Chicago, Ill.)

Secretary of War Lamont very studiously and very wisely ignores the recent recommendation of General Miles that our army be enlarged. His report, just published, contains much information that is highly interesting and satisfactory, and exhibits the effectiveness of this arm of the service for every present purpose. If it ever comes to a war again it will not be to the regular army we will look, as we all well know. A military people like ourselves have no need for a large standing army.

The Philadelphia Record. (Pa.)

The contingency of war may seem remote; but we have no assurance of immunity from such an eventuality. "In time of peace prepare for war" is an axiom more applicable now even than in the time of Washington, in view of the facts that the preparations must be more elaborate and that years are required for their completion.

Denver Republican. (Col.)

It is the opinion of American naval officers that in the event of war between the United States and Spain the American fleet would in a short time drive the Spaniards from the sea. The American navy is the stronger of the two, and it is commanded by able officers, trained in one of the best naval schools of the world. Many of the Spanish vessels are obsolete, and Spain has not a single ship that probably would succeed in combat with either the Indiana, Massachusetts, or Oregon.

The Times-Democrat. (New Orleans, La.)

The country wants that Squire-Wilson Bill introduced last session, and wants it badly, to remedy this glaringly weak spot in the naval-engineer force. It is to the last degree absurd to go on building modern-day men-of-war and not to provide trained men to handle their machinery.

Baltimore American. (Md.)

It would be a sorry plight for the country to be in to have all the necessary means of defense and no troops to use them intelligently or to direct their use for the protection of cities.

The Sun. (New York, N.Y.)

Nearly fourteen years have now elapsed since, during President Arthur's administration, the foundations of our new navy were laid. Without a break Congress has kept steadily at work upon it ever since; and there should be no pause until we have a fleet strong enough to defend our shores and to protect our citizens, our rights, and our flag in all waters.

The Times. (Hartford, Conn.)

Although the word still comes from Washington that this country and Spain are on the best terms of peace and friendship, the energy with which new fortifications are being pushed and orders for contractors to hurry are given all make an outlook which savors more of possible war.

PRINCE LOBANOFF'S SUCCESSOR.



PRINCE LOBANOFF ROSTOVSKY.

Late Russian Minister of Foreign Affairs.

October 8, at the Russian embassy in Paris, the czar signed the nomination of M. Schischkin as minister of foreign affairs.

Born in 1830, M. Schischkin was educated in the Imperial Alexander Lyceum in St. Petersburg. In 1853 he was connected with the Asiatic branch of the Russian foreign department and in 1857 was made secretary of the Russian embassy in Paris. Beginning with 1875 he was ambassador to the United States for several years. From here he went to Athens. In 1884 he was appointed minister at Stockholm, Sweden, serving here till his recall to St. Petersburg in 1891 to assist M. de Giers in the ministry of foreign affairs. He then was raised to the rank of general and made acting secretary of state. To these honors in 1893 the czar added the highest distinction in the empire by personally giving him the decoration of the Alexander Nevski order, and now places him in the ministry of foreign affairs.

The Chicago Record. (Ill.)

It is because he was favorable to peace and because he carried his aims without involving his government in conflict that Lobanoff's death will be regretted abroad. He did much to strengthen the empire, but he avoided the clash of arms which Europe regards as inevitable. It remains to be seen whether among the other diplomats of the empire there are those who can take up his work and carry it on so brilliantly as he has done.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

It remains to be seen if M. de Schischkin will be content with the altogether subordinate rôle of M. de Giers, or whether he will assume that of his immediate predecessor, Prince Lobanoff—by far the strongest of the four ministers of foreign affairs who have held office since the beginning of the nineteenth century. It is difficult to make any forecast in the matter. For while on the one hand the new minister, with his forty-five years of diplomatic and administrative service, must manifestly possess a far larger stock of experience and statecraft than his young emperor, yet the latter cannot

ALL nations are watching with concern to see what line of action will be adopted by Prince Lobanoff Rostovsky's successor in the Russian ministry of foreign affairs, M. Nikolai Pavlovitch Schischkin. He enters upon his duties at a time when Russia is seizing upon the chief place among the powers in the eastern hemisphere. This Russia has been enabled to do through the achievements of Prince Lobanoff, during his nineteen months' tenure of the ministry of foreign affairs, all of these achievements being victories of statesmanship and not of war. It was while accompanying the czar and czarina on their tour about Europe in the early fall that the prince's death occurred, on August 30, at a small station *en route* from Vienna, Austria-Hungary, to Dresden, Germany. M. Nikolai Pavlovitch Schischkin immediately was called to join the czar in the prince's place, and, according to Paris newspapers, on



M. NIKOLAI PAVLOVITSCH SCHISCHKIN.

The New Russian Minister of Foreign Affairs.

but remember the mistake made by M. de Schischkin when at the time of the war between China and Japan he urged Russia's alliance with the victor in lieu of Prince Lobanoff's extraordinarily clever and successful intervention for the vanquished.

The Tribune. (Minneapolis, Minn.)

His [Nicholas III.'s] policy has been shaped by Prince Lobanoff, his chief adviser, the inveterate enemy of England, an ardent supporter of the Franco-Russian alliance, the man whose display of friendship toward Turkey has upheld the sultan in his Armenian atrocities. His recent and sudden death leads to the hope of a change in Russia's foreign policy, but this change depends upon the new counsellor who shall take Lobanoff's place with the young and inexperienced czar.

The Chattanooga Times. (Tenn.)

Lobanoff had set going the necessary preliminaries for a Russo-Austrian alliance, with special reference to Turkey, and that alliance completed meant the hustling of the Ottoman power out of Europe and its final dismemberment and distribution among the powers.

RECENT COMMENT ON THE PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION.

(*Rep.*) *The Republican Standard.* (Bridgeport, Conn.)

WE think when Chairman Hanna, of the Republican National Committee, says that the "delusions and misrepresentations of the last campaign will not be effective in 1900 against the Republican party" he is very nearly right. If after the assiduous work of the silver trust for the past eight years they were inoperative at this election they are not likely to gain much strength after four years of additional enlightenment and the wonderful demonstrations which are made by the operation of national laws.

(*Rep.*) *Mail and Express.* (New York, N. Y.)

English manufacturing towns like Bradford and Sheffield report a great increase in their trade with America since the recent election. That is to say, that under the operation of the Wilson-Gorman Bill they are sending larger shipments of their manufactures to this country. It appears from this that our present tariff is producing the benefits which the foreigners expected to derive from it.

(*Rep.*) *The Seattle Post Intelligencer.* (Wash.)

It is a fortunate thing that Major McKinley will take the office of president with a good working majority behind him in the House, and, as indications point, in the Senate also. Under such circumstances it will be a comparatively easy matter for Congress and the president to perform the first and most necessary duty, which is the amendment of the existing revenue laws in such a manner as to provide an adequate revenue for the general government, now running behind at an appalling rate.

(*Rep.*) *San Francisco Call.* (Cal.)

The indorsement of protection, reciprocity, sound money, liberal pensions to Union soldiers, the upbuilding of a merchant marine, the extension of internal improvements, the advancement of American industries were but parts of one great whole. The prevailing sentiment in all sections of the Union, including even the Democratic South, was the overthrow of every foolish dreamer and dangerous demagogue in the land. How completely that sentiment worked its will at the polls is made clear by the results before us. We can now look forward to the immediate return of better times.

The Monde. (Montreal, Can.)

The grievances of the masses against the financial world and its dishonest maneuvers are unfortunately well founded, and the demagogues obtain thereby the most redoubtable arguments. It is always easy to rouse the poor against the rich and the miserable against the opulent. In this lies the secret of Bryan's plan of campaign. The sound common sense of the people has overcome the danger, and the intellectual element has managed to assert itself.

(*Silver Dem.*) *The Chronicle.* (Spokane, Wash.)

The fight for bimetallism will go on till it is won. It will not cease till it is won in the United States and in the whole world. The narrow gold standard cannot support the rapidly increasing traffic of the nations. So long as it is retained so long will there be instability, shrinking values, panics, and distress. The question will not be settled till it is settled rightly.

(*Pop.*) *The Independent.* (Lincoln, Neb.)

The most important lesson to be learned from the campaign is the importance of education upon political subjects among the masses of the people. The plan of campaign conducted by the Republicans has been one of deceit. This was true of their entire campaign. From all this we must learn that the time to educate the people is when their minds are free from partisan prejudice, not during the excitement of a presidential campaign. Now is the time to begin.

The Herald. (Fredericton, Can.)

The country will breathe easier, and many important interests which were jeopardized by the possible reign of the wild men of the West will now proceed on a stable basis. American credit, which had been impaired by the report of Bryan's strength, will rise to its former level, and Canada as well as the United States will feel the good effects of the government's being placed in the hands of a party which has not allowed itself to be carried away by the radical element of its Constitution.

The Financial News. (London, England.)

The danger of a policy of legal tender silver in the States, involving repudiation, has not only been averted but according to all appearances it has been swept entirely if not permanently away. The rapid bound-up in American securities which has followed the victory of the Republican party is due largely to the belief that capital, now that the danger of repudiation is removed, will flow back to the States, and bring about a healthy and general revival in trade.

(*Pop.*) *The News.* (Denver, Col.)

The News believes that there should be and must be firmer and more intimate unity of bimetalists than ever before, and that nothing must be allowed to interfere with it. The exact method of procedure by which this great end may be accomplished can not yet, perhaps, be definitely pointed out, but there are several ways open, and the selection of the best one is the problem to which all Silver voters should set themselves. We must drop our minor differences, which only dissipate strength, and get into one solid body working for the same end. So long as bimetalists fritter away their energies over

local differences or national questions that are not vital they . . . indirectly aid in the perpetuation of the rule of the money power.

The Scotsman. (Edinburgh, Scotland.)

If Mr. Bryan had been elected there would have been a danger of the whole Constitution of the United States being overturned. It has been said that some members of the Republican party have been so much impressed by the danger that they have even urged a resort to force if Mr. Bryan were chosen—in other words, there has been, in the recent past and until the election, a danger that civil

war in the United States might spring out of the return of Mr. Bryan, and that civil war would be waged for the maintenance of the Constitution of the United States as against proposals to overthrow that Constitution.

(Free Silver.) Freie Presse. (Chicago, Ill.)

Business will revive, but not for long. The production of gold does not keep pace with the increase in population. New bonds will have to be issued, wages will decrease, the value of real estate and merchandise will decrease, and the battle will begin anew.

WILLIAM STEINWAY.



WILLIAM STEINWAY.

Steinway had a sympathetic interest in his employees and the houses he erected for their accommodation were supplied with all the modern conveniences. He took an active part in national and municipal affairs and was especially interested in the plan for an underground railway in New York, being president of the Rapid Transit Commission.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

By the death of William Steinway New York loses a good citizen. Though he was a man of strong political convictions he had no desire for political notoriety, and yet his sense of civic obligation constantly compelled him to accept public responsibilities which made him a conspicuous figure in municipal life. Moreover, he bore the full weight of the multifarious burdens which his fellow-citizens were

On November 30 at his home in New York occurred the death of William Steinway, head member of the firm of Steinway and Sons, piano manufacturers. Mr. Steinway was a German-American, having been born in Germany in 1836 and come to the United States with his father and two brothers when he was fourteen. His father had been a fairly prosperous piano manufacturer in Brunswick, but after reaching this country he and two sons worked in piano factories as ordinary mechanics in order to learn American methods, while William was apprenticed to William Nunns and Company, piano manufacturers. After about three years father and sons went into business for themselves on a small scale, were later joined by another son from Germany, and gradually enlarged their works until to-day they have extensive piano factories in Germany and England as well as in New York. The firm has changed its composition several times by the death of some and the addition of younger members of the family. Its pianos have received wide recognition for their superiority. Mr.

went to devolve upon him. In consenting to give his name to an undertaking he considered himself bound to give his time and strength to it, and thus he was a notable example of fidelity to the general welfare, while his practical sagacity made his services peculiarly valuable. He was useful to the community in so many ways and the object of affection and esteem in so many circles that his death is sure to cause an unusual sense of grief and loss.

THE GREAT FOOTBALL GAMES.

THE annual contests between the four leading football teams took place November 21 when Yale and Princeton played on the Manhattan field, New York, and Harvard and the University of Pennsylvania on the Franklin field, Philadelphia. The result was a victory of Princeton over Yale by a score of twenty-four to six and of Pennsylvania over Harvard by eight to six. The game between Princeton and Yale reversed the result of last year's contest, in which Yale was winner, and allows Princeton to boast of not having been defeated this year. Pennsylvania's defeat of Harvard was the third occurrence of the kind in as many years and the score was smaller this time than ever before. Pennsylvania's record, however, is not one of continued triumph as she was defeated by Lafayette earlier in the season.

The Philadelphia Inquirer. (Pa.)

The four great teams in the football world are unquestionably those of these four universities. Yale and Harvard do not play because of a disagreement between them. Yale and Princeton do not meet Pennsylvania because they are on the outs with each other. This is childish. Football is a manly game, and these four universities are manly institutions. They ought to be able to sink all past grievances and come together in a friendly meeting. It is to be hoped that this is the last year in which disagreements will prevail. Let Pennsylvania, Harvard, Yale, and Princeton come together in another year in an intercollegiate association.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

[Princeton's] football team came and saw and conquered. Yale, which has so often proved invincible when the other side was thought to be superior, and which even this year, in spite of the record, was imagined by many to have something in reserve, was not merely beaten but overwhelmed. . . . But the best of it is that both elevens exemplified the science of football, and not the science of slugging. Physically it was an uncommonly dirty game, but morally it was clean and wholesome; and so the sea-

son closes with decisive and welcome proof that the most interesting and incomparably the most popular of college sports is not necessarily demoralizing to participants and offensive to spectators.

Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

The games are not arranged so that a test can be made between the teams of the great universities, though as Princeton's is the only team that has not been worsted by any of her opponents that virtually constitutes her the champion of 1896. In 1894 and 1895 the undecided question of superiority was between the University of Pennsylvania and Yale. Last year, however, the University of Pennsylvania had the best claim to championship, her team not having been scored against while Yale had two drawn games. This year Princeton has the best claim, having beaten Harvard, Yale, and Cornell, and played a drawn game with Lafayette. Pennsylvania lost a game to Lafayette, and is thus at a disadvantage in comparison with Princeton. No one can say surely, in the absence of an actual trial, which presents the stronger team, though the odds are clearly favorable to Princeton. It is sufficient to know that Pennsylvania has been one of the two leaders for three years in succession.

THE ELECTORAL COLLEGE.

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

THIS surprising piece of news is supplied by the *Minneapolis Penny Press* of Friday last, Dec 4: "Yesterday William McKinley was duly elected president of the United States by the action of the different state electors."

Not yet. Major McKinley will not be voted for as president of the United States until Monday, Jan. 11, 1897, and the electoral votes will not be officially counted and the result officially declared until Monday, Feb. 10, less than a month before the inauguration. The Constitution leaves it to Congress to determine the day on which the presidential electors shall give their votes. The law of 1845 provided that the electors for each state should meet and give their votes on the first Wednesday of December. This date stands in the Revised Statutes, edition of 1878; and that is what has probably misled our contemporary and produced its premature announcement. The law of 1845, however, has been superseded by the act of Feb. 3, 1887, which will be found in Vol. I. of the Supplement to the Revised Statutes, on page 525. This provides that the electors of each state shall meet and give their votes on the second Monday in the January next following their appointment, at such place in each state as the legislature of such state shall direct. In New York, for example, the Capitol at Albany is designated by law as the place of

meeting, and noon on the second Monday of January as the time. In New York each elector gets \$15 and mileage.

The certified returns for each state are transmitted by messenger to the president of the Senate, or to the secretary of state in case the president of the Senate is not in Washington. On the second Wednesday of February, at 1 o'clock, the two houses of Congress meet in joint session in the hall of the House of Representatives. The president of the Senate opens the certificates, and after the votes have been counted by tellers, two for the Senate and two for the House, the result is declared by the president of the Senate. Then, and not until then, will Major McKinley and Mr. Hobart be elected. The machinery of presidential elections by the electors of the several states is not very complicated. Part of the process, however, is prescribed by the Constitution of the United States, part is regulated by the federal statutes, and part depends upon state legislation; and to this circumstance, perhaps, is due in a measure the extraordinary confusion in the minds of many intelligent American citizens with regard to the whole business. That Major McKinley will be declared elected on Feb. 10 is a matter of moral certainty merely. Technically and theoretically there is nothing to prevent the 447 presidential electors from voting unanimously for John Smith of Oshkosh.

SUMMARY OF NEWS.

HOME.

November 7. In his report to the secretary of war Inspector-general Breckinridge declares the army to be in excellent condition.—The Bureau of Navigation, Treasury Department, is informed of the establishment of new regulations for foreign and Chinese traffic between Shanghai and Fuchau and Hangchow.

November 9. The Torrens Land Title Act is declared unconstitutional by the Illinois Supreme Court.—The annual horse show begins in Madison Square Garden, New York.

November 11. The National Grange convenes in Washington, D. C.

November 12. The Knights of Labor, convened in Rochester, N. Y., indorse a graduated income tax.

November 15. Within the last fiscal year, ending June 30, there arrived in this country 343,267 immigrants, an increase of 84,708 during the year; their condition shows an improvement over those of last year.

November 16. W. S. Foreman, of Illinois, is appointed by President Cleveland to be commissioner of internal revenue in place of Joseph H. Miller, resigned.—The irrigation law of California is declared constitutional by the United States Supreme Court.

November 17. The American Congress of Liberal Religious Societies goes into session in Indianapolis, Ind.—Francis E. Willard is reelected president of the W. C. T. U.

November 20. Rev. Dr. Thomas J. Conaty is announced to succeed Bishop Keane as rector of the Catholic University in Washington, D. C.

November 21. The International Order of King's Daughters and Sons goes into annual convention in St. Louis, Mo.

November 24. The third Georgia congressional district nominates C. R. Crisp to fill the unexpired term of his father, ex-Speaker Crisp.

November 27. President Cleveland buys a home in Princeton, N. J.

November 28. The Hawaiian minister of foreign affairs is reported to be *en route* to Washington, D. C., to negotiate a new treaty of annexation.

December 5. The State Department receives a protest from the German government against President Cleveland's retaliatory proclamation.

FOREIGN.

November 6. The British Chartered South Africa Company authorizes the directors to raise

the capital by \$5,000,000 for defraying the cost of crushing the rebellion in Matabeleland.—Complete returns from the elections show that Liberals have gained sixty-five seats in the Hungarian Diet.

November 13. Costa Rica and Columbia agree to settle their boundary dispute by arbitration.

November 16. The Pan-American Medical Congress convenes in the City of Mexico.

November 17. The French Chamber of Deputies passes a bill to substitute universal suffrage for the municipal councils in the election of delegates who elect senators.

November 20. The Italian government officially confirms the reported signing of the Italo-Brazilian treaty.

November 21. The Royal College of Surgeons, in London, at last makes women eligible to diplomas in that college.

November 25. The Bering Sea Claims Commissions convene at Victoria, British Columbia.

November 26. Chili's cabinet is reorganized.

November 28. The czar of Russia is said to have stripped his various ministers of their power in favor of himself and will in the future reign as a perfect autocrat.

December 1. On account of Dr. Jameson's ill health his release from Holloway jail is ordered by the British home secretary.

December 2. In the Italian Chamber a vote of 186 to 27 is passed in approval of the government's African policy.

December 3. The £500,000 advanced for the Anglo-Egyptian expedition to Dongola will be repaid by England to the Commissioners of the Caisse.

NECROLOGY.

November 6. William Nicholas, Duke of Wurttemberg.

November 7. Professor Henry E. Parker, of Dartmouth College.—Russell Smith, the veteran scenic artist.—Mgr. d' Hulst, French theologian and member of the Chamber of Deputies.

November 11. Joseph James Cheeseman, president of the republic of Liberia.

November 18. Hon. Eli H. Murray, ex-governor of Utah.

November 20. Noël Parfait, French politician and author.

November 27. Miss Mathilde Blind, authoress.

November 30. Ex-United States Senator John Scott, of Pennsylvania.

C. L. S. C. OUTLINE AND PROGRAMS.

FOR JANUARY.

OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING.

First Week (ending January 7).

"The Growth of the French Nation." Chapter XVI. to page 289.

"A Study of the Sky." Chapter I. and Chapter IV. to "Ursa Minor" on page 61.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN :

"Historic Names and Incidents of the French Academy."

Sunday Reading for January 3.

Second Week (ending January 14).

"The Growth of the French Nation." Chapter XVI. concluded.

"A Study of the Sky." Chapters II. and III. and Chapter IV. from page 61 to page 64.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN :

"The French Academy."

"Hôtel de Rambouillet and the Rise of the French Academy."

Sunday Reading for January 10.

Third Week (ending January 21).

"The Growth of the French Nation." Chapter XVII.

"A Study of the Sky." Chapter VII. and Chapter IV. from page 64 to page 66.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN :

"The French Immortals."

"French Literature of To-day."

Sunday Reading for January 17.

Fourth Week (ending January 28).

"The Growth of the French Nation." Chapter XVIII.

"A Study of the Sky." Chapter VIII. and Chapter IV. from page 66 to page 69.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN :

"The Newspaper and Periodical Press of France."

"Superstition and Sorcery in French Society."

Sunday Reading for January 24.

FOR FEBRUARY.

First Week (ending February 4).

"A Survey of Greek Civilization." Chapter I.

"A Study of the Sky." Chapter IX. and Chapter IV. from page 69 to page 71.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN :

"Masterpieces of French Painting."

Sunday Reading for January 31.

SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLE WORK. FIRST WEEK.

RICHELIEU DAY—JANUARY 4.

Artifice is allowed to deceive a rival: we may employ everything against our enemies.—*Richelieu*.

1. Character Sketch—Cardinal Richelieu.
2. Essay—The foreign policy of Richelieu.
3. Essay—The Huguenots in France and America.
4. A Talk—Richelieu's attitude toward French colonies.
5. A Discussion—The wisdom of the institution of intendants.
6. Table Talk—Richelieu's attitude toward internal affairs.

SECOND WEEK.

1. Select Readings—Chapters from Carlyle's "History of the French Revolution": "The Constituent Assembly," "Easter at Saint-Cloud," "The Jacobins," "Discrowned," "At the Bar," "The Three Voters," "Place de la Révolution."
2. Essay—The work of the National Assembly.
3. General Discussion—The week's reading in THE CHAUTAUQUAN.
4. A Talk—The Reign of Terror.
5. Book Review—"Paul and Virginia," by Saint-Pierre.
6. Conversation—The relation between Spain and the United States.*

THIRD WEEK.

1. Book Review—"Tartarin on the Alps," by Daudet.
2. Character Sketch—Napoleon Bonaparte.
3. A Discussion—The continental system of Napoleon.
4. Select Reading—"Ode On the Death of the Duke of Wellington," by Tennyson.
5. Recital of a Story and a Literary Criticism—"Abbé Constantin," by Halévy.
6. Table Talk—The progress of the Venezuelan dispute.

FOURTH WEEK.

1. Discussion—The comparative influence of the French and the American press.

* See *Current History and Opinion*.

FOR FEBRUARY.

FIRST WEEK.

2. Table Talk—The development of France since 1815.
 3. A Talk—The French kings since the time of Louis XVI.
 4. *Questions and Answers* on "The Growth of the French Nation."
 5. Conversation—Personal astronomical observations.
 6. General Information—The navies of the world.*
1. Essay—A history and description of the telescope.
 2. A Paper—The political history of ancient Greece.
 3. Essay—The myths of Greece.
 4. A Talk—Superstition in the nineteenth century.
 5. General Conversation—The religion of the ancient Greeks.

*See *Current History and Opinion*.

C. L. S. C. NOTES AND WORD STUDIES.

ON REQUIRED READING FOR JANUARY.

THE first three months of the C. L. S. C. year have been devoted to the task of obtaining a knowledge of the historical and political events which go to make up the history of the French nation and of gaining an insight into the character of a people who are much criticized but little understood. But our knowledge of any nation is incomplete without an acquaintance with its literature by means of which the thought and spirit of the age are transmitted to us, for it is an outgrowth of the country's life and the two—literature and history—are inseparably connected from the first growth of a nation.

The antecedents and environments which constitute a nation's development have their influence upon the language and the literature. In France as in other countries the conquest of the natives by a foreign power and the infusion of neighboring tribes produced a modification of both language and literature. The political divisions of France have contributed much not only to the dialectic forms of the language but also to the varied literature. On the other hand national conscience may be aroused and popular opinion be educated by the powerful pen of some author, indirectly leading to a popular uprising or a revolution, even, which will change the whole course of a nation's history. Instances of this have not been unknown in our own national life.

Though no book specially devoted to literature is this year included in the course of study a careful perusal of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* will give the reader a broad survey of this department of French history to which this number of the magazine is particularly devoted. The incidents connected with the founding of the French Academy, an institution the like of which is found in no other country, and the peculiar influence which it exerts in the field of letters entitle it to the prominence given it in the consideration of French literature and history. Necessarily the articles are in a measure confined to a statement of facts concerning literature and literary men. The materials which bring us into contact

with individuality, which arouse our emotions, which lift us up to a higher discipline and culture must be obtained from the authors themselves. Readers understanding no language but the English are not debarred from these sources of culture for many excellent translations of foreign works—of the French almost more than any other—are accessible to all.

The scientific subject to which the readers are for a few weeks to devote a portion of their time is astronomy. The work in this subject is so arranged that each week during the first six months of the year the students may make practical observations on the sky itself, without which astronomy loses some of its fascination.

"THE GROWTH OF THE FRENCH NATION."

P. 279. The cockades were red and blue, the colors of Paris, with white, the color of the house of Bourbon, between them.

P. 281. The "anniversary of the taking of the Bastille" is called the Feast of the Federation. It took place in the Champs de Mars, a large sandy place in front of the École Militaire, and was given by the Parisians to the representatives of the army and the departments. About one hundred thousand representatives were present at Paris on the 14th of July, 1790. Lafayette is said to have been the first to publicly take the oath of loyalty to the new constitution.

P. 285. *Émigrés*. Emigrants.

P. 285. The "Girondists" were so called from the department of Gironde, the deputies of which were the acknowledged leaders of the party.—The "Jacobins" received their name from the hall in which they met, a room of the Jacobin Convent.

P. 287. "Temple." The fortified lodge erected in 1128 by the Knights Templars, which occupied the present site of the *Marché du Temple* (Market of the Temple). After the suppression of the order in 1312 the kings used the building as a treasury. The great square tower in which Louis XVI. was imprisoned stood until 1810.

P. 287. "Valmy" [vāl-mē']. A town in the department of Marne, a few miles southeast of Rheims. The battle fought here is sometimes classed with the decisive battles of the world.

P. 288. Scheldt [skelt]. This river was closed to navigation from 1648 to 1792. Its commercial importance is great, owing to the system of canals which connects the stream with the principal cities of Belgium.

P. 289. "Naples" was an ancient state, or kingdom, in southern Italy.—"Tuscany," now a *compartimento* in Italy, was a grand duchy under the Medici in the middle of the 16th century. It became a *secundo-geniture* of Austria in 1737, but was taken by the French in 1799.

P. 291. "Bailly" [bā-yē']. — "Égalité" [ā-gāl-i-tā']. The name adopted by Louis Philippe Joseph during the Revolution.

P. 291. The Hébertists, the members of the faction of which Hébert was leader, made a fierce attempt to institute the Terror as the regular government of France. They professed atheism, and placed the goddess of reason on the altar of Notre Dame. The Dantonists, led by Danton, overthrew the Hébertists, but they were themselves overthrown by Robespierre, who put an end to the worship of reason and influenced the members of the Convention to pass a resolution declaring their belief in the existence of a supreme being, in whose honor festivals were celebrated.

P. 293. "Godoy" [go-Doi'; D represents a sound similar to *th* in *then*]. A Spanish statesman and prime minister.

P. 293. By the treaty made in April and July, called the treaty of Basel, Prussia gave up her provinces on the left bank of the Rhine and Spain ceded her portion of San Domingo to France.

P. 295. "The year III." The third year according to the calendar instituted by the first French Republic in 1793, which divided the year into twelve months of thirty days each, five or six supplementary days, called *sans culottides*, being added to the last month to complete the year. Every tenth day was a day of rest, no attention being given to Sundays.

P. 297. "École normal." Normal school.—"*Conservatoire des arts et métiers*." Conservatory of the arts and trades.

P. 299. "Wurmser" [voorm' zer].

P. 299. "Castiglione" [kās-tēl-yō' ne]. The town Castiglione delle Stiviere [del'le stē-vē-ā're], where the battle was fought, is about 22 miles northwest of Mantua.

P. 300. "Arcola" [ār'kō-lā] is an Italian town a few miles southeast of Verona.

P. 300. "Leoben" [lā-ō' ben] is a town in Austria-Hungary.

P. 301. "Campo-Formio," where the treaty of

October 17 was signed, is a town of northeastern Italy.

P. 303. "Tippoo Sahib" [ti-poo' sā' hib]. The sultan of Mysore, a native state in the Deccan, India. He was engaged in war with the British.

P. 304. "Parthenopean Republic." A republic formed from the kingdom of Naples, so called from Parthenope, an ancient name for Naples.—"Piedmont." The most important portion of the ancient kingdom of Sardinia, now a *compartimento* in the northwestern part of Italy.

P. 311. "Ulm" [ööl'm]. A town of Wurtemberg.—"Jena" [yā'nä].

P. 313. "Wagram" [vā'grām].

P. 315. "Hundred Days." The last attempt made by Napoleon to reestablish his empire occupied about 100 days, from March 20 until the defeat at Waterloo in June.

P. 320. "Guizot" [gē zō']. A French historian and author of political essays. The publication of the latter was the cause of his removal from the council of state and the order to discontinue his lectures in the Sorbonne.

P. 320. "Holy Alliance." A league formed at Paris in 1815 by the sovereigns of Russia, Austria, and Prussia. All the other European sovereigns except those of England and Rome afterward joined the alliance. "Its professed object was to unite their respective governments in a Christian brotherhood, but its real one was to perpetuate existing dynasties by their joint opposition to all attempts at change."

P. 321. The "edicts of July 26" annulled the last elections, changed the electoral system, and removed the liberty of the press.

P. 329. "Seven Weeks' War." Another name for the Austro-Prussian War of 1866, one of the shortest and at the same time one of the most decisive wars in history. It resulted in placing Prussia at the head of the German states and among the first military powers of Europe.

P. 337. "Grévy" [grā-vē']. He was forced to resign the presidency on account of the traffic in offices and decorations carried on by his son-in-law.

"A STUDY OF THE SKY."

P. 20. "Rigveda." The largest and most valuable of the Vedas, a collection of Hindoo hymns praising the personified powers of nature.

P. 21. "Ecliptic." See page 51 of the text-book.

P. 22. "Eudoxus." A Greek astronomer and physician. He is said to have brought forward as a proof of the earth's sphericity the fact that the altitude of a star changes with the latitude. He died about 356 B. C.—"Archimedes" [ār-ki-mē'dēz] was the most celebrated mechanician and geometrician of ancient times. He was killed at the capture of Syracuse in 212 B. C.

P. 22. "Pythagoras" [pi-thăg'ō-ras]. An eminent Greek philosopher and mathematician, born probably about 582 B. C. He is said to have asserted that the heavenly bodies were set in a series of crystalline spheres at the common center of which was the earth. The fixed stars were set in the outer sphere and there was one for each planet. Each sphere was perfectly transparent and the stars in the outer spheres were therefore visible through the inner ones to an observer situated on the earth. These spheres rolling round on each other daily caused the rising and setting of the heavenly bodies and produced a celestial music, called the "music of the spheres," too elevated in character to be audible to mortals.

P. 23. "Philolaus" [fil-o-lā'us].

P. 24. "Ptolemy" [tol'e-mi].—"Almagest" [al'ma-jest]. This is the best known of Ptolemy's works and is written in thirteen books.

P. 26. The "Alphonsine tables," by which Alphonso X, sought to improve the Ptolmaic planetary tables, were the work of about fifty of the most celebrated astronomers and mathematicians of those times, assembled at Toledo for this purpose. The tables were completed in 1252 at a cost of 40,000 ducats, about \$90,000 in gold.

P. 27. "Warmia." The Latin name of Ermland, an ancient division of Poland but now included in the Prussian government of Königsberg.

P. 27. "De Revolutionibus Orbium Cælestium." The Revolutions of the Celestial Orbs.

P. 28. "Brahe" [bräh; or Danish pronunciation br'æ].

P. 29. "Uranienburg" [oo-rā'nē-en-borg].—"Huen." Spelled also Hven [hvān].

P. 35. "Lagrange" [lā-gronzh'].—"Laplace" [lā-plās'].

P. 36. "Urania." In mythological literature, the muse of astronomy and the celestial forces, often represented with a globe in her hand and a compass for indicating the course of the heavenly bodies.

P. 37. "Andromeda" [an drōm'e-dā].

P. 37. "Pleiades" [plē'ya-dēz or plī'a-dēz].

P. 39. "Orion" [ō-rī'on].

P. 44. "Mizar" [mī'zar, or mē'zar]. From an Arabic word mīzār, meaning a waistcloth or apron.

P. 48. "Cassiopeia" [kas-i-o-pē'yā].—"Nereids" [nē'rē-īdz].—"Poseidon" [pō-sī'don].

P. 50. "King Charles' Wain." A modern form of the ancient *carl's wain* from the Anglo-Saxon *carles wæn*, a churl's wain, or farmer's wagon. "The word *wain* came to be associated with the name *Charles* with reference to Charlemagne, the group being also called in Old English *Charle-maynes wayne*. In the 17th century it was associated with the names of Charles I. and Charles II."

P. 50. "Venerable Bede." An English ecclesiastical writer and monk celebrated for his piety and learning.

P. 50. "Weigel" [vīg'el].

P. 51. "Hyades" [hy'a-dēz].

P. 51. "Hesiod" [hē'si-od]. A Greek poet who lived about 735 B. C.

P. 53. "Antares" [an-tā'rez].

P. 53. "σεῖριος." Seirios.

P. 53. "Aldebaran" [äl-de-ba-rān' or al-deb'a-ran].

P. 53. "Altair" [al-tār'].

P. 53. "Betelgeuze" [bet-el-gēz'].—"Boötes" [bō-ō'tez].

P. 53. "Bayer" [bī'er].

P. 60. "Dubhe" [doob'he]. From the Arabic *dubh*, a bear.—"Merak" [mē'rak]. From *merāq al-dub*, the loin of the bear.—"Megrez." From the Arabic *meghrez al-dub*, the root of the bear's tail.—"Be net' nasch or Alcaid" [al-kād']. The Arabic *al-kāyid-al-bendū-al-nā'sh* meant, the governor of the mourners; probably in allusion to "the bier," by which name the Arabians called the four stars forming the bowl of the dipper.

P. 130. "Guinand" [ge-nōn'].

P. 135. "Nicol's prism." A prism of Iceland spar used in experiments where polarized light is required.

REQUIRED READING IN "THE CHAUTAUQUAN."

"THE FRENCH ACADEMY."

1. "École Polytechnique." The Polytechnic school. It corresponds in a measure to the school at West Point.—"Bibliothèque Nationale." National Library.

2. "Conrart" [kon-rär'].

3. "Fauteuil." [fō-tē'y].

4. "Récipiendaire." New member; a member about to be received.

"HISTORIC NAMES AND INCIDENTS OF THE FRENCH ACADEMY."

1. "En vain," etc. The couplet may be translated literally as follows:

J-Jan.

In vain against "Le Cid" a minister is leagued,
All Paris for Climène has the eyes of Rodrigue.

2. "Panathenaic" [pan-ath-e-nā'ic]. Pertaining to the Panathenæa, the principal national festival of the Athenians held in honor of Athene. The prime object of the festival was to remind the inhabitants of their union as one people. The Acropolis, on which was the shrine of the goddess, was visited by a splendid procession and gymnastic games and musical competitions were held in the plain below.

3. "Godeau" [go-dō'].—"Gombault" [gon-bō'].—"Malleville" [mäl-vēl'].—"Serizay" [seh-re-zā'].—"Habert" [hā-bair'; h represents the sound of the aspirated h].—"Cérisy" [sā-re-sē'].

4. "Séguier" [sā-gyā'].
5. The "Molinists" held the opinions of Louis Molina in regard to predestination and the free will of man, which he expressed in a work entitled "De Concordia Gratiae et Liberi Arbitrii." This treatise was assailed by various religious orders, among them the Jansenists, those advocating the doctrines of Cornelis Jansen. A bitter controversy resulted which was partly suppressed by Pope Paul V.
6. "Bourdaloue" [boor-dā-loo']. — "Malebranche" [māl-bronsh'].
7. "Diderot" [dē-drō'].
8. "Maxime du Camp" [dükon'].
9. "Saint Évremond" [san tāvr-mon]. — "Courier" [koo-ryā'].
10. "Exclus." One excluded.
11. "Fénelon" [fān-lon']. — "Massillon" [mā-sē-yōn'].
12. "*Reçu à l'Académie Française.*" Received into the French Academy.
13. "*Bel esprit.*" A brilliant mind.
14. "*Homme-femme.*" An effeminate man.
15. "Tencin" [ton-san']. — "Geoffrin," [zhofrān']. Madame de l'Espinasse" [es-pe-nās'].

"THE FRENCH IMMORTALS."

1. "Legouvé" [le-goo-vā'].
2. "Bataille des Dames." Battle of the Women.
3. "Broglie" [brō-yē'].
4. "Études Morales et Littéraire." Moral and Literary Studies. — "Questions de Religion et d'Histoire." Religious and Historical Questions. — "Le Secret du Roi." The Secret of the King. — "Histoire et Diplomatie." History and Diplomacy.
5. "Ollivier" [ō-lē-vyā'].
6. "Mézières" [mā-zyār'].
7. "Meurthe-et-Moselle" [mērt-ā-mō-zel']. A department in the northeastern part of France.
8. "Les Pattes de Mouche." The Feet of a Fly. — "Nos Intimes." Our Intimates. "Nos Bons Villageois." Our Good Villagers.
9. "Le Duc d'Audiffret-Pasquier" [le dük-dō-dē-frā' pās-kē-ā'].
10. "Sully-Prudhomme" [sü-lē' prü-dom'].
11. "Le Vase Brisé." The Broken Vase.
12. "Cherbuliez" [chār-bü-lyā'].
13. "Meilhac" [mā-yak'].
14. "La Belle Hélène." Beautiful Helen. — "Orphée aux Enfers." Orpheus in Hades. — "La Grande Duchesse de Gerotsein." The Grand Duchess of Gerotsein. — "La Vie Parisienne." Parisian Life.
15. "Hervé" [er-vā'].
16. "D'Haussonville" [do son-vēl'].
17. "Claretie" [klār-tē'].
18. "Viaud" [vyō].
19. "Le Pêcheur d'Islande." The Fisherman of Iceland.

20. "Bornier" [bor-nyā'].
21. "Brunetière" [brün-tyār'].
22. "Heredia" [ā-rā-dee'a].
23. "Bourget" [boor-zhā'].
24. "Houssaye" [oo-sā'].
25. "Les Corbeaux." The Ravens.
26. "André Theuriet" [tē rē-ā']. The author of "Flavia," a story completed in the current number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

"THE HÔTEL DE RAMBOUILLET AND THE RISE OF THE FRENCH ACADEMY."

1. "Ronsard" [ron-sār']. A French poet belonging to a group of seven men, called the "Pléiade," who attempted to reduce French language and literature to a classic form.
2. "Malherbe" [māl-ārb'].
3. "Racan" [rā-kon']. — "Les Bergeries." The Pastorals.
4. "Grammont" [grā-mon'].
5. "Montausier" [mōn-tō-zyā'].
6. "Pellisson" [pā-lē-sōn'].
7. "Giry" [zhe-re'].
8. "Faret" [fā-rā'].
9. "Des Marts" [da-mā-rā'].
10. "Boisrobert" [bwā-ro-bair'].
11. "Amyot" [ā-mē-ō']. — "Marot" [mā-rō'].

"THE NEWSPAPER AND PERIODICAL PRESS OF FRANCE."

1. "*Nouvelle Revue.*" The New Review.
2. "*Journal des Petites Affiches.*" The Advertisers' Journal.
3. "Monde." The World.
4. "Vérité." The Truth.
5. "Charivari." French. Mock-music, rattle, clatter; *Punch* is a national *charivari* since it clatters against unpopularity in political and social life.
6. "Événement." The Event.
7. "Galignani" [gā-lēn-yā-nē'].

"FRENCH LITERATURE OF TO-DAY."

1. "Leconte de Lisle" [le-kont' de lēl].
2. "Lamertine" [lā-mār-tēn']. — "Vigny" [vēn-yē']. — "Cousin" [koo-zan']. — "Musset" [mü-sā'].
3. The three parts of the trilogy of the "Tartarins" are "Tartarin of Tarascon," "Tartarin on the Alps," and "Port-Tarascon."
4. "*Aqua fortis*" (strong water) is a chemical term formerly applied to nitric acid.
5. "Ohnet" [ō-nā'].
6. "Mendès" [mōn-dā'].
7. "Duruy" [dü-rüē'].
8. "Richebourg" [rēsh-book']. — "Montépin" [mōn-tā-pan']. — "Rosny" [rō-nē'].
9. "Richepin" [rēsh-pan'].
10. "Deroulède" [de-roo-lād'].

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS.

ON THE C. L. S. C. TEXT-BOOKS.

"THE GROWTH OF THE FRENCH NATION."

1. Q. By what was the Revolution brought on?
A. By the action of the third estate.

2. Q. What question gave rise to the first crisis?
A. The question of voting in one house or in three.

3. Q. What demand was made by the third estate?
A. That the other two orders join it in a single assembly.

4. Q. What was the first work begun by the National Assembly?
A. The work of forming a constitution for France.

5. Q. By what means did the king hope to force the third estate to yield to his commands?
A. By military force.

6. Q. By whom was a permanent municipal government for Paris organized?
A. By the electors chosen to select the deputies of Paris to the Estates General.

7. Q. For what is the session of the Assembly on August 4 famous?
A. As being the session in which the deputies of the nobles and clergy renounced for themselves their feudal rights, and the reign of equality was legally inaugurated.

8. Q. When was the new constitution finished?
A. In September, 1791.

9. Q. What other changes made by this assembly had a powerful influence on the future of France?
A. The provinces were abolished and the financial policy altered, which involved the reconstruction of the national church.

10. Q. When did the Legislative Assembly under the constitution meet?
A. October 1, 1791.

11. Q. When did the wars of the Revolution begin?
A. April 20, when France declared war against Austria.

12. Q. What famous declaration was adopted by the Convention on November 19?
A. A declaration announcing in effect their mission to revolutionize all governments in the interest of their particular sort of liberty.

13. Q. What was the result of this revolutionary propaganda?
A. War with all Europe.

14. Q. How did the first campaign result?
A. In the defeat of the French.

15. Q. What was one of the measures ordered by the Convention to meet the military crisis?
A. A general conscription to furnish an army of 300,000 men.

16. Q. By the constitution of the year III. what modifications were made in the system of government?
A. It provided for a legislature of two houses, and established the Directory.

17. Q. Of how many members did the Directory consist?
A. Of five members elected by the two houses of the legislature.

18. Q. How much power was granted to the Directory?
A. It was to have entire control of all executive and administrative matters, only the most important acts required any sanction from the legislature, and it could not impeach or depose the directors.

19. Q. When was the new government organized?
A. At the end of October, 1795.

20. Q. What prevented the directors from closing the war?
A. England and Austria were unwilling to grant satisfactory terms.

21. Q. What was the main subject of interest in the war during 1796?
A. The campaign of Bonaparte in Italy.

22. Q. What was the result of this campaign?
A. Italy was made an ally of France.

23. Q. Of what difficult task did the directors give Bonaparte charge?
A. The conquest of England.

24. Q. What was his first work toward the accomplishment of this object?
A. His expedition to Egypt.

25. Q. Upon his return to France what changes did he find in political affairs?
A. Nearly all Europe had joined a coalition against France, and the Directory was weak and unpopular and the government almost dissolved.

26. Q. To whom did the constitution of 1799 give the executive responsibility?
A. Nominally to three consuls but in reality to Bonaparte.

27. Q. How did he use his power?
A. With great moderation and wisdom.

28. Q. With what country did France make a treaty of peace after the campaign of 1800?
A. With Austria.

29. Q. What two mistakes of policy mark the turn in the fortunes of Napoleon?
A. The attempt to carry out his continental system and to make Spain a vassal state.

30. Q. By what government was the blow struck which proved to be the first in the actual downfall of Napoleon?
A. By Russia.

31. Q. Of what nature is the history of France since 1815?
A. It is a history of changes and of revolutions, in which the mass of the people have had no interest, and of governments supported only by the minority.

32. Q. Of what is the history of the monarchy of the Restoration also a record?
A. It is the his-

tory of a slowly growing reaction against liberal ideas on the part of the government.

33. Q. How was the Second French Republic established? A. By the mob which led an insurrection in Paris in 1848.

34. Q. Why was it kept in existence? A. Because the three monarchical parties could not agree upon a common policy.

35. Q. Who was made president? A. Louis Napoleon.

36. Q. What was the character of Louis Napoleon's constitution? A. Thoroughly monarchical.

37. Q. What was the object of the Second Empire? A. To keep the people satisfied with the policy of the government.

38. Q. How did the Third Republic begin? A. With terrorizing the legislature by a mob.

39. Q. When did the National Assembly assume control of France? A. February 13, 1871.

40. Q. How many constitutions has France had since 1790? A. Seventeen.

"A STUDY OF THE SKY."

1. Q. In what writings are found some of the first astronomical allusions? A. In the writings of the early Aryans.

2. Q. How is the earth represented in these writings? A. As having a flat surface on which rests the blue vault of heaven.

3. Q. To whom must we look for the most valuable early astronomical observations? A. To the Chaldeans.

4. Q. What early Greek students believed the earth to be a sphere? A. Eudoxus, Archimedes, and Aristotle.

5. Q. Who has been called the father of astronomy? A. Hipparchus.

6. Q. What system of locating places did he devise? A. By means of latitude and longitude.

7. Q. What did Ptolemy teach in regard to the shape, position, and orbit of the earth? A. The earth is round, it occupies the center of the celestial sphere, and its orbit is a circle.

8. Q. What are Kepler's laws? A. I. Each planet moves in an ellipse, at one focus of which is the sun. II. The line joining a planet to the sun sweeps over equal areas in equal times. III. The squares of the times of revolution of any two planets are to each other as the cubes of their mean distances from the sun.

9. Q. How did Galileo aid the science of observation? A. By the use of a rude telescope.

10. Q. What is Sir Isaac Newton's great gift to astronomical science? A. The discovery of the universal law of gravitation.

11. Q. What are fixed stars? A. Those which always remain in the same relative position.

12. Q. Of what are the nebulae composed? A. Of cloud-like masses of matter of vast extent.

13. Q. What are minor planets? A. Small bodies revolving about the sun in paths which lie between those of Mars and Jupiter.

14. Q. To what class of bodies does the moon belong? A. Satellites.

15. Q. What is the diameter of the earth? A. Less than 8,000 miles.

16. Q. What motion does the star sphere appear to have? A. It appears to turn once a day about an axis drawn from the observer's eye to the north celestial pole, which is in the vicinity of Polaris.

17. Q. From what source have astronomers obtained many of the names given to the constellation? A. From Greek mythology.

18. Q. What is meant by the "ancient constellations"? A. The forty-eight constellations transmitted to us by Ptolemy.

19. Q. What is the zodiac? A. A belt of constellations sixteen degrees wide which extends around the sky.

20. Q. Where is the ecliptic? A. In the middle of the zodiac.

21. Q. What group of stars were often used by ancient peoples in connection with the calendar? A. The Pleiades.

22. Q. Of what origin are the names of most of the stars of the first magnitude? A. Greek or Latin.

23. Q. What is meant by the declination of a star? A. Its distance from the celestial equator.

24. Q. To what terrestrial measurement does the right ascension of a star correspond? A. To longitude.

25. Q. In a star catalogue what three things are stated about each star? A. Its right ascension, its declination, and its brightness.

26. Q. With what branches of learning should astronomers be familiar? A. Mathematics, physics, mechanics, German, and French.

27. Q. What characteristics are necessary to an accomplished astronomer? A. Alertness, perseverance, and accuracy.

28. Q. By whom and when was the telescope invented? A. By Hans Lippershey in 1608.

29. Q. How large was the mirror of the first reflecting telescope? A. One inch in diameter.

30. Q. What is the size of the largest reflector ever constructed? A. It is six feet in diameter.

31. Q. By what name is the common form of telescope called? A. Refractor.

THE QUESTION TABLE.

ANSWERS IN NEXT NUMBER.

FRENCH LITERATURE AND ART.—IV.

1. For what vocation was Racine educated? Of what writer was he a pupil?
2. Which of his plays are founded on incidents in the Bible? What characteristic title has been given him?
3. Who is the author of "Gil Blas"?
4. What century may be termed the century of Voltaire? In what branches of literature was he the leader?
5. With what noted monarch was he connected during his absence from France?
6. What was his last play and how was it received?
7. What style of architecture was first brought to perfection in France?
8. Give the characteristics of this style.
9. What conditions hindered the development of architecture in France?
10. Who is the first alleged French painter?

FRENCH HISTORY.—IV.

1. Who received the title "Little Corporal" and on what occasion?
2. What title was given to Godoy and why?
3. What treaty is known as the Family Compact and by whom was it secured?
4. By what name is the battle of Austerlitz sometimes called and why?
5. How did France and England attempt to settle the dispute over their colonial possessions in America?
6. How many French ministers were appointed and displaced in the period from 1755 to 1763?
7. For what purpose was the Seven Years' War undertaken?
8. What noted German author was with the Prussian army at Valmy as a spectator?
9. What opinion did he express in regard to the battle?
10. By whom was Louis XVI. defended before the National Convention?

ASTRONOMY.—IV.

1. Where is the site of Yerkes Observatory? From whom was this tract of land obtained?
2. With what university is this observatory connected?
3. By whom were the funds for the telescope provided?
4. What are the dimensions of the polar axis of this telescope?

5. What is the length and the weight of the tube?
6. Where is the Lick Observatory located?
7. By whom was it founded and how much money was given by the founder for this purpose?
8. With what university is this connected?
9. When was the observatory formally transferred to the regents of this university?
10. What is the diameter of the lens of the refractor in the Lick Observatory?

CURRENT EVENTS.—IV.

1. Where is the town of Key West located?
2. By what fort is its harbor defended?
3. Why is Key West an important naval station?
4. Where are the Dry Tortugas and what fort is located here?
5. During the Civil War for what purpose was this fort used?
6. Who is the present secretary of navy?
7. When was the Navy Department formally created?
8. What was the real origin of the navy?
9. How many cadets are allowed at the United States Naval Academy at Annapolis?
10. When and by whom was the academy founded?
11. Concerning what points have Secretary Olney and Lord Salisbury differed in their correspondence on the Venezuelan question?

ANSWERS TO QUESTIONS IN "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FOR DECEMBER.

FRENCH LITERATURE.—III.

1. The Renaissance. Villon and Comines.
2. A group of seven French poets of the sixteenth century who aimed to make French literature classical.
3. The French Academy was formally instituted in 1635 by Cardinal Richelieu for the improvement and regulation of the national tongue.
4. A dictionary of the French language. 50 years.
5. Corneille may be compared to Æschylus, Racine to Sophocles, and Voltaire to Euripides.
6. Molière wrote in details, and took types for his writings.
7. Madame de Sévigné, Madame de La Fayette and Madame de Maintenon.
8. Madame de Sévigné.
9. He was chief editor of the "Encyclopédie."
10. A French writer chiefly noted for his fables; he was born 1621 and died 1695.

FRENCH HISTORY.—III.

1. The fortification of the kingdom.
2. He

worked upon 300 fortresses already begun, constructed 31 new ones, conducted 53 sieges, and was present at 140 engagements. 3. The socket by means of which infantry could fire with the bayonet on the end of the gun. 4. When Lorraine was promised to France to secure the acknowledgment of the validity of the Pragmatic Sanction issued by Charles VI. in favor of his daughter, Maria Theresa. 5. Of the siege of La Rochelle. 6. Battle of H^öchst^{adt}. 7. In 1704. 8. That, "War, mortality, the continual quartering and movement of soldiery, service, heavy duties, the emigration of the Huguenots, have ruined this province." 9. Warrants issued by royal authority, closed with the king's petty seal once used in France for arrests and imprisonments, as well as for evicting persons from France or Paris. 10. The six ordinances passed by a commission appointed by the influence of Colbert to reconstruct the entire legislation of France; they were as follows: civil ordinance, or Code Louis, ordinances of waters and forests, criminal instruction, commerce, marine and colonies, and the black code.

ASTRONOMY.—III.

1. With an eclipse of the sun by the moon. 2. Mercury and Venus. 3. In November, 1639, by Horrox and Crabtree, two young Englishmen. 4. At alternate periods of eight years and then more than

a century. 5. December 6, 1882. 6. June 8, 2004. 7. To ascertain the distance of the earth from the sun. 8. When Venus was the morning star the ancients called it Phosphor or Lucifer; when it was the evening star it was called Hesperus or Vesper. 9. They have been used for determining longitude and for ascertaining the time required for light to travel through the space between the sun and the earth. 10. They were independently discovered by Galileo, Fabritius, Scheiner, and Harriot.

CURRENT EVENTS.—III.

1. Upon a ratio of members to population, one member being allowed to about 70,000 people. 2. The candidate must be at least twenty-five years of age, a natural born Frenchman, and in possession of all civil and political rights. Members of the French royal families are ineligible. 3. Of 584 members. 4. About \$1,800; \$5,000. 5. The first Tuesday after the first Monday of November. 6. To as many electors as there are senators and representatives in Congress; the House of Representatives. 7. In 1746. 8. It was used for barracks and a hospital by both American and British troops; General Washington and the Continental Congress. 9. The Manchu, so called because established by the Manchus who conquered China in the seventeenth century. 10. The Confucian.

THE C. L. S. C. CLASSES.

1882-1900.

CLASS OF 1897.—"THE ROMANS."

"Veni, Vidi, Vici."

OFFICERS.

President—Judge C. H. Noyes, Warren, Pa.

Vice Presidents—Rev. W. P. Varner, Bolivar, Pa.; Mrs. A. E. Barber, Bethel, Conn.; Miss Jessie Scott, Miss.; Mrs. G. B. Driscoll, Sidney, Ohio; Prof. Wm. E. Waters, Wells College, Aurora, N. Y.; A. A. Stagg, Chicago, Ill.; Mrs. Carrie V. Shaw-Rice, Tacoma, Wash.; Rev. James Ellsworth Coombs, Victoria, B. C.; Miss Emily Green, South Wales, N. Y.

Secretary—Miss Eva M. Martin, Chautauqua, N. Y.*Treasurer and Trustee*—Shirley P. Austin, Pittsburg, Pa.

CLASS EMBLEM.—IVY.

THE Romans find themselves almost within sight of the goal and this is the time for renewed effort. All past deficiencies can be made good, and no member, however hindered by circumstances, need yet despair of making an honorable record.

AN appreciative member of the class in Oneida writes: "I have gained greatly in memory and find that I can keep many more thoughts in mind. My CHAUTAUQUAN is read by five persons and then sent to a lady who does not have the opportunity to take it."

ANOTHER writes: "My interest and enthusiasm

increase as I commence the last year of the four. During this time I have pursued my studies alone, although I would doubtless have enjoyed being connected with a circle. I know that perusing the course even alone has very greatly benefited me. One of these benefits, and by no means the least, has been the increasing and strengthening of my taste for solid reading."

CLASS OF 1898.—"THE LANIERS."

"The humblest life that lives may be divine."

OFFICERS.

President—Dr. W. G. Anderson, New Haven, Conn.

Vice Presidents—Mrs. Frances R. Ford, Troy, N. Y.; Mrs. W. V. Hazeltine, Jamestown, N. Y.; Mrs. W. T. Gardner, S. H. Clark, Chicago, Ill.; Dr. J. M. Buckley, New York, N. Y.

Secretary and Treasurer—Mrs. S. H. Anderson, Cleveland, Ohio.

CLASS FLOWER.—VIOLET.

AN interesting letter comes from a member of the class in Ohio. He writes: "I am a farmer. I live about two miles from town and belong to no circle, as it is often difficult to get to town in winter and it is at that season of the year that I must do

nearly all of my reading; but it is very profitable even when one is alone." This is the picture of a man who lives beyond the narrow routine of daily toil. This winter he will be in France and Greece and his thoughts will soar among the stars. "The humblest life that lives may be divine" through the ministry of good books.

A COURAGEOUS '98 in Illinois writes: "I am behind in my work but hope to graduate with my class. My books are doing double duty. I find it very difficult to make rapid headway with my other work." No doubt '98 has its share of those who work against heavy odds. Few there are who have not encountered difficulties, but to the credit of these earnest men and women be it said that they have made their way subject to their will and in each year's work gain new courage to conquer.

CLASS OF 1899.—"THE PATRIOTS." "Fidelity, Fraternity."

OFFICERS.

President—John C. Martin, New York, N. Y.

Vice Presidents—The Rev. Cyrus B. Hatch, McKeesport, Pa.; Charles Barnard, New York, N. Y.; Frank G. Carpenter, Washington, D. C.; John Brown, Chicago, Ill.; Charles A. Carlisle, South Bend, Ind.; Edward Marsden, Alaska; William Ashton, Uxbridge, Eng.; Miss Alice P. Haworth, Osaka, Japan; Miss Frances O. Wilson, Tien-Tsin, China; Mrs. Katharine L. Stevenson, Chicago, Ill.

Secretary—Miss Isabella F. Smart, Brielle, N. J.

Treasurer and Building Trustee—John C. Whiteford, Mexico, N. Y.

CLASS EMBLEMS—THE FLAG AND THE FERN LEAF.
CLASS COLOR—BLUE.

A GOOD record is shown by this class in the number who have already reported for the second year's work. It might be well, if circle work and last year's readings are not yet finished, to take up the work for '96-'97 promptly and work at the unfinished readings as opportunity permits.

A BUSY pastor in New Jersey in sending his second fee takes occasion to say: "The course has proved very interesting and profitable and I find that the five books and THE CHAUTAUQUAN make a most valuable addition to my library." This is a fact that all Chautauqua readers soon realize—that they are not only enjoying a profitable and interesting course of reading but at the same time are accumulating a valuable library which will be found for generations to be a treasury of reference.

ANOTHER writes: "I am highly pleased with the C. L. S. C. and would recommend it to all those who are ambitious of intellectual excellence." This sentence is worth reading twice. A lecturer at Chautauqua last summer said: "The great difficulty is to get people to desire better things." The Chautauqua reader purposes to reach out for more and stand on higher ground. We do well to make this year the best year we have lived.

CLASS OF 1900.—"THE NINETEENTH CENTURY CLASS."

"Faith in the God of truth; hope for the unfolding centuries; charity toward all endeavor."

OFFICERS.

President—Rev. Dr. Nathaniel I. Rubinkam, Chicago, Ill.

Vice Presidents—J. F. Hunt, Chautauqua, N. Y.; Morris A. Green, Pittsburg, Pa.

Secretary—Miss Mabel Campbell, Cohoes, N. Y.

Trustee—Rev. Dr. Nathaniel I. Rubinkam, Chicago, Ill.

CLASS EMBLEM—EVERGREEN.

A MEMBER in Cohoes, N. Y., in a very interesting note says: "When studying my Sunday-school lesson I thought that the explanation of Prov. 1:5 was such a good argument for C. L. S. C. that I would send it to you. It is also an interpretation of our class emblem, the evergreen, which is also the sign of growth. While the tree grows it is green; for 'when growth stops decay begins.'"

THERE are probably many readers who are faithfully reading the books and THE CHAUTAUQUAN who have not yet enrolled at the central office. We urge membership in the class for three reasons: first, because the helps sent out by the central office will be found of real value; again, because an enrolled member feels under a slight obligation to uphold the record of the class, and that pressure, be it ever so light, has kept many a student from falling out by the way; lastly, the central office wants to know all the names of all working members that through coöperation the C. L. S. C. may be most wisely developed.

GRADUATE CLASSES.

IF every member of the graduate classes would become a recruiting officer working diligently to swell the great army of readers, the enrollment at the central office would double before the new year.

THE Current History and Opinion seal course continues to be very popular with graduate readers, and its popularity will doubtless increase as its value is better known to those who wish to retain their connection with Chautauqua, add seals to their diplomas, and yet do not feel inclined to take up one of the more extended and expensive courses.

A SPECIAL circular has been sent out to some graduate classes asking for information that will be of great value to the central office. It is hoped that the request will be kindly granted and that the saying "once a Chautauquan always a Chautauquan" will again be proved true in the manifested spirit of interest in all that can help the common cause.

IN making his final report on the four years' work a member of the Class of '96 writes: "This course has been worth everything to me. It has given me topics and outlines for a lifetime of study and reading and has made me better in every way." The Chautauqua course looks back four years and ahead at least one hundred years.

LOCAL CIRCLES.

C. L. S. C. MOTTOES.

"We Study the Word and the Works of God."

"Let us Keep our Heavenly Father in the Midst."

"Never be Discouraged."

C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS.

OPENING DAY—October 1.
BRYANT DAY—November, second Sunday.
MILTON DAY—December 9.
COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.
LANIER DAY—February 3.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.
LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.

SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.
ADDISON DAY—May 1.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.
INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Saturday after first Tuesday.
ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first Tuesday.

SPECIAL MEMORIAL DAYS FOR 1896-97.

CHARLEMAGNE DAY—October 30.
"SAINT LOUIS" DAY—November 30.
JOAN OF ARC DAY—December 4.
RICHELIEU DAY—January 4.

HOMER DAY—February 12.
SOCRATES DAY—March 5.
EPAMINONDAS DAY—April 24.
PHIDIAS DAY—May 24.

NEW CIRCLES.

NEWFOUNDLAND.—The C. L. S. C. has recently found a home in St. John's, where an enthusiastic circle of Methodists, including four college graduates, have started out with positive assurance of success.

VERMONT.—The new circle at Shelburne has elected one officer, who acts both as leader and secretary.—Nineteen Membership Books have been forwarded to Burlington, where a promising circle is organized.

MASSACHUSETTS.—The Hiawthas of Holyoke have read the course for a year but have only now sent a list of the eighteen names for enrollment.—"Knowledge is Power" is the motto of the Clover C. L. S. C. at Somerville, composed of six '99's who have withdrawn from the West Somerville Circle and with two other members have formed the new one.—Lawrence has a circle of eight who are well pleased with the reading course.

CONNECTICUT.—The C. L. S. C. course is receiving favorable consideration by prospective readers at Chester.—St. Andrews is the name given to one club at New Haven, while another band of C. L. S. C. workers call themselves the Lucky Circle.

NEW YORK.—Every lover of Chautauqua will be interested to know that a C. L. S. C. has been organized in "The Town Behind a Fence." On September 30 a meeting was held in the C. L. S. C. Building; Chautauqua songs were sung and the lessons presented by able teachers. The following day being Opening Day an enthusiastic company met at the dock and rang the bells as a message to all fellow-members. In accordance with a vote of the society this loyal band sends through THE CHAUTAUQUAN greetings of cheer and good fellowship to all the circles in the land.—The circle connected with the Methodist Church at Geneva,

although not registered at the central office, is faithfully reading the course.—Live circles are studying at Steadman and Sodus.—An energetic '97 at Syracuse has succeeded in interesting four others in the C. L. S. C.—A flourishing circle has started out at St. Johnsville with twenty-four members and the principal of the schools as president.

PENNSYLVANIA.—Knoxville has a company of readers enlisted in the circle work.—Three Chautauquans of Pittsburg are following the course; the secretary writes: "We are delighted with the course and feel considerably wiser since the commencement of our studies."—Circles are organized at Murrys ville, Tiona, Allegheny, Falls Creek, Emlenton, and Canton.

MARYLAND.—At Chillum, just outside the District of Columbia, an enthusiastic C. L. S. C. has started out with the Nineteenth Century Class.

NORTH CAROLINA.—After many unsuccessful attempts a C. L. S. C. has been organized at Altan. All members of the circle express great satisfaction with the work planned for the year.

SOUTH CAROLINA.—Hartsville has a circle of zealous members following up the work of the C. L. S. C.

FLORIDA.—An effective organization has taken place at Eustis; the secretary writes: "Following the suggestion of the emblem for the Nineteenth Century Class, and living in southern Florida where the pine abounds, we have named our circle 'The Pinus Palustris Circle of Eustis, Florida.'" A member of '97 is reading with the circle.—A Pioneer of Avon Park has entered his name in the Class of 1900.

TENNESSEE.—A dozen courageous people have organized a C. L. S. C. at Lenoir City.

ALABAMA.—Two readers who joined the C. L. S. C. at Chautauqua form a circle at Calhoun, with seven new members.

TEXAS.—A new circle is organized at Hubbard City.

OHIO.—The pastor of the M. E. Church of New Burlington reports a circle formed at that place. —Sixteen Chautauquans of Dayton have started out in the new year.

ILLINOIS.—The Altona Circle is carrying on the work with unbounded enthusiasm. —Kingston also boasts a dozen active workers.

MINNESOTA.—A circle has auspiciously begun its career at Winona. —A recently-organized class at Tylers is taking up the work with the proper zeal. —On October 2, a C. L. S. C. was launched at Blue Earth City. They send for class colors.

IOWA.—Previous to the organization of the circle at Villisca a parlor entertainment was given, when a full report of the Midland Chautauqua Assembly was read. Soon after a class began work with evident interest. A feature of their meetings is that in response to the roll quotations from a French author are given. A teacher appointed for each study prepares a quiz for each meeting, and every month a special program is provided. —A thriving circle has been formed at Clarinda among the employees of the hospital in that place. —Live circles are at work at Preston, Belvue, Mt. Auburn, Arlington, Greeley, and Floyd. —A circle of progressive people in the vicinity of Des Moines term themselves the Farm Circle and will be worthy adherents of the new class. —Of the circle organized at Keb the secretary writes: "The circle is made up of young men and women who will continue steadfast and accomplish much good to themselves and those about them." —The Bridgewater Circle has at present three members with hope of more. —Sheldon has numbered among its members, besides a number representing the new class, one '95, two '99's, and one '82. —Among the earnest Chautauquans of the Des Moines League are the Vincent and Oakleigh Circles.

MISSOURI.—Eleven members report from Kansas City as having organized a C. L. S. C. with a hopeful outlook.

OREGON.—A lively and interested company of readers at Portland term themselves the Harmony Circle, and by their union of purpose seem to merit the name.

CALIFORNIA.—A band of Chautauquans at Bodie are enthused with the plan of study and are well pleased with the subjects for the year. The scribe says: "We are situated between eight and nine thousand feet above the sea-level and consequently experience long winters, but the interest of the C. L. S. C. study will help us out considerably."

ARIZONA.—Thirteen circle readers and one individual reader at Phoenix are pursuing the course with an earnestness and zest that will surely achieve success.

OLD CIRCLES.

CANADA.—The C. L. S. C. at Kingston, Ont., is increased by three new members endowed with the proper enthusiasm. —The Chautauquans of Stone-wall, Man., are pursuing the work unflinchingly. —Circle work progresses at Dundas, Ont.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.—Five of the readers at New Hampton will graduate with the Romans.

MASSACHUSETTS.—Diminished in numbers but not in working power, the Plainville readers are making rapid progress.

CONNECTICUT.—The report from Bridgeport shows the '98's up to date with their work. —Forestville is wide awake, with four new names added to its number.

NEW YORK.—The Brooklyn Chautauqua Union still finds strength in its union services and is meeting with marked success in the lecture course. The lecture for January, to be held in the Fourteenth Street Presbyterian Church, is on "Arctic Explorations." Newspaper notices defining the course of study for the C. L. S. C. are numerous in Ontario County. —The circle at Halls Corners has reorganized, reelecting the successful president of two years. —Canandaigua's circle is entering upon its eleventh year, with the same president who has served faithfully in that capacity since the organization in 1886; they retain all the '99's and have gained eight new readers for 1900. —Newburg circle is to be congratulated on its full list of members and the thoroughness of their study. —The South Street Circle of Utica is firm in the determination to conquer the French-Greek year. —The Hurlbut Circle of West New Brighton was never more active than this year. Meeting regularly every week, the members are interested and are planning some Chautauqua evenings, when the pleasures and benefits of the C. L. S. C. may be shared with the friends of the members. —A large energetic circle is successfully conducted at Jamaica. —The '99's in the circle at Camden are in the majority, but several new members, one '95 and one '83, belong to the circle. —A quartet of Patriots of New York are giving the C. L. S. C. careful attention. —The Pathfinder Circle of Brooklyn is as ever making the most of the Chautauqua course. Another circle of Brooklynites is making rapid advancement in the work. —Study is faithfully pursued among the members at Panama, Watkins, and Ellenville.

NEW JERSEY.—*The West Side Annual* of Jersey City takes occasion to note the prosperous condition of the C. L. S. C. in that city with its ever active and progressive members. At a recent meeting of the Beach Circle the entertainment committee prepared an interesting game in which thirty articles, each suggestive of the title of some book, were distributed, and a prize awarded to the one guessing the greatest number. At one of the

regular meetings of the Una Circle a profitable program was carried out in which many topics suggested by the books studied were discussed. The Culver and Centenary Epworth League Circles are keeping up their usual high standard of work. Under the auspices of the Chautauquans of Hudson County the novel and fascinating picture story "The Town Behind a Fence" was given in the West Side Avenue M. E. Church of Jersey City on November 19. The description of the peculiar system of government and education of Chautauqua, with pictures showing the streets, homes, parks and amusements of this "City of Pleasure," met with universal favor. The Literary Union connected with the M. E. Church is a great power for good in the city.—Basking Ridge, Pemberton, and Trenton are pursuing the course with unabating ardor.

PENNSYLVANIA.—The presence of Bishop Vincent in Allegheny some time since has given the C. L. S. C. a new impetus. The Columbia Circle is in fine trim and working hard. The Allegheny Century Circle make their presence felt in their locality. The Longfellow Circle reports most interesting programs of meetings held every two weeks.—The Millville Chautauquans are a live and wide-awake band of workers.—The circle at Orwigsburg, with its thirty members, including at least three pastors and their wives, are proving very effectual members of the C. L. S. C.—Circles are reorganized at Troy, Nebraska, Mahanoy City, York, Condersport, Warren, Greenville, and Apollo.

MARYLAND.—Three members of '86 and two of '98 comprise an energetic circle at Centreville.

SOUTH CAROLINA.—The secretary of the circle at Yorkville writes: "The White Rose C. L. S. C. of this place has opened its eighth year of continued and active work with bright prospects. We have enrolled twenty members, three of whom enjoyed the great pleasure of spending six weeks at the national Chautauqua Assembly during the past summer and returned home enthused with the Chautauqua spirit."—The Knights of the Round Table of the C. L. S. C. of Chester have organized and begun work in earnest. The members are full of life and spirit and claim that Chautauqua is doing much for them.

KENTUCKY.—The circle at Louisville is favored in having among them four honorary members who meet with the class and add materially to the interest of the meetings.

TENNESSEE.—McMinnville has a well-organized and energetic circle.

TEXAS.—Thoroughness seems to be the aim of the circle at Terrell, where a class of twenty are doing full justice to the C. L. S. C.—The work of the reading club at Tyler is receiving marked attention, as noted in the newspaper clipping received. Concerning the work of this organization

the scribe says: "Our club was organized eight years ago and has made THE CHAUTAUQUAN standard bearer, finding the suggestive program satisfying and well calculated to develop a systematic course of study."

INDIAN TERRITORY.—The Chickasaw Circle of Ardmore with its twenty-six hard-working members is doing a noble work in that frontier town; though all busy people, they find time to spend every Friday afternoon in C. L. S. C. study.

OHIO.—All the programs for the weeks beginning with October and ending with December, neatly typewritten and tied with ribbon, are received from the circle at Fremont. The report of one of the meetings shows the members to be mastering all difficulties. An interesting program consisted of story telling, when each member told a French story.—The eighteenth anniversary of the Alpha C. L. S. C. of Cincinnati was celebrated at the home of one of the members on November 21.—Enthusiastic students are reported from Dover, Berkey, and Paulding.

INDIANA.—The reorganization of the circle at Winamac found seven ready for the year's work; they adhere to the programs as given in THE CHAUTAUQUAN, new leaders being assigned each week, thus dividing the work equally.—Vincent Circle at Liberty, composed almost entirely of graduates, is reading the Current History course.

ILLINOIS.—The fortnightly meetings held by The Nineteenth Century Circle of Chicago are very interesting, the program committee selecting the best of lecturers for the exposition of the subjects studied during the two weeks. The Oliver Wendell Holmes Circle, also of Chicago, has organized for its third year's work with a membership of about a dozen.—The '99's of Havana have added two names to their list.—Examination papers have been forwarded to six diligent students at Danville.—Some twenty or more members at Fairfield are making rapid progress in the C. L. S. C.—The active circle at Elgin numbers twenty-five excellent circle workers.—The circle at Lebanon is reorganized.

MICHIGAN.—The Maple Grove Circle of Orleans has resumed work for the year with five active and four associate members.—The C. L. S. C. has faithful adherents at Wasepi and Benton Harbor.

WISCONSIN.—The Westfield Chautauquans have reorganized and are working with renewed vigor.—Circles report from Stoughton and Oshkosh.

MINNESOTA.—The C. L. S. C. of Buffalo, Minn., numbers sixteen active and eight honorary members, and finds this, its second year, growing daily in interest. It follows, in the main, the plan of work in THE CHAUTAUQUAN and adds to it the discussion of five current events at each of its weekly meetings. Topics selected from the "Growth

of the French Nation" are assigned to the circle, and the use of manuscript is discouraged. The most important event or personage of the week's study is made the subject of an essay. A few minutes are given to the study of French pronunciation. The circle is a member of the State Federation of Clubs. The annual banquet of this C. L. S. C., held in July, was one of the social events of the season. The home where the feast was given was decorated with a profusion of flowers and ferns, while the table was beautiful to behold. Nineteen Chautauquans were present and each one received a hand-painted souvenir book.—The '99's at Amboy have taken up the work with more zeal than ever before.—The circle at Duluth is in good working order.

IOWA.—The reception given by the alumni of Manchester C. L. S. C. to the graduating Class of '96, on September 25, was an event long to be remembered by the members of the circle and their friends. The reception and banquet were held in the Knights of Pythias Hall, which was beautifully decorated, the class banner occupying a conspicuous place. A delightful program followed the banquet.—The Nineteenth Century Circle of Marshalltown appropriately celebrated Bryant's birthday by a program including quotations from the poet or some anecdote connected with his life, also a paper on "Bryant as a Poet" was read and "Thanatopsis" was recited.—An encouraging report comes from the '99's at Coon Rapids.—The Lowell Club of Boone celebrated its first meeting in a unique and fitting manner at the home of one of the members. In accordance with their study of Holland the hostess transformed her house into a veritable Dutch dwelling; the walls were festooned with red peppers, corn, dried apples, etc., while the spinning wheel, old-fashioned chairs, and blue-bordered china plates ranged in rows on the shelves fitted in very appropriately; none but Dutch dishes were served at the supper, after which the hostess presented each guest with a Delft cup and saucer. The Dutch costumes worn by the ladies were much admired.—

Berryville has organized a circle of five ladies who meet semi-monthly at their homes.—Wall Lake Chautauquans prove faithful to the cause.—A very earnest and enthusiastic band of readers report from Cedar Rapids.—Circle readers are doing satisfactory work in Monticello.

MISSOURI.—The West Plains C. L. S. C. numbers thirteen, including several new members. The secretary says, "We are delighted with the work of the present year."—The class of married ladies at Kansas City is doing noble work.—The alumni of the circle at Oregon add much to the interest of the meetings.—Circles are reorganized at Carthage, Sedalia, Marshall, and Boonville.

KANSAS.—The readers at Kansas City report briefly as follows: "Our circle begins work this year with a small membership but a deep interest in the work and hope to be able to persuade others to join us."—Two members of Garden City will graduate in the Class of '97.

NEBRASKA.—The Class of '99 at Wayne numbers a dozen active members.

COLORADO.—A band of bright, zealous readers are studying at Windsor.

CALIFORNIA.—The circle at Vallejo is deserving of special commendation for their enterprise and promptness in beginning the new year.—The Central C. L. S. C., of San Francisco has a membership of forty, ladies and gentlemen, with an enrollment of sixteen in the Class of 1900. The Chautauqua Vesper Service has been a very valuable aid in this society in bringing the C. L. S. C. to the attention of the public, and they state that they have no doubt secured a portion of their membership by the use of this song service in the churches, the effect of which being strengthened by kindly comment from the pulpit. They report a growing interest in Chautauqua work, and a manifest desire to eclipse all former efforts in making their society a credit to the C. L. S. C. and the Pacific coast.

UTAH.—A recently organized circle at Salina numbers eight deeply interested members known as the Wasatch C. L. S. C.

TALK ABOUT BOOKS.

Juvenile.

The juvenile reader, ever ready for the wonderful, will be pleased with "The Book of Wonder Voyages,"* in which the editor, Joseph Jacobs, has recited representative tales from several literatures. From Hellas he has given us "The Argonauts." The Celts are represented by "The Voyage of Maelduin," while from the

Arabic and the Norse there is "Hasan of Bassorah" and "The Journeyings of Thorkill and of Eric the Far-travelled." The illustrations, of which there are many, are in perfect keeping with the text and the title-page also shows the skill of the artist.

Stories by Hans Andersen are so well known that they are sure to find a welcome among young people. Therefore no comment is necessary on the five tales—"The Wild Swan," "The Ugly Duckling," "The Little Mermaid," "The Storks," and

*The Book of Wonder Voyages. Edited by Joseph Jacobs. Illustrated by John D. Batten. 224 pp. \$1.50. New York: The Macmillan Company.

"The Snow Queen"—contained in a small volume* illustrated by Helen Stratton. The most salient points of each of the stories the illustrator has made the subject of a picture calculated to produce a strong impression on the mind of the reader. A cover in red and black, suggestive of the contents of the book, large, clear type, and gilt edges are the excellent features in the make-up of the volume.

Where Santa Claus comes from and where he keeps the presents he distributes each year may be a matter of wonder to the children, but the secret is revealed in a sweet little story called "Santa Claus's New Castle,"† which shows the kind-hearted generosity of the children's friend. After reading the story every child will love dear old Santa Claus more than ever. The publishers have shown a keen appreciation of the fitness of things by placing the tale in a cover on which the green and red of the holly and a facsimile of Santa Claus' castle appear.

Just how disagreeable a little fellow of eleven can be and how much mischief he can do is unknown, but little Tom Seabury, a personification of willfulness, in "A Short Cruise"‡ was able to spoil the pleasure of a trip as well as endanger the lives of others. In strong contrast to him is his thoughtful, motherly little sister, who at once wins the heart of the gruff Captain Stubbs, an excellent example of the class which he represents. These are the chief actors in this short story, which has a lesson to teach.

A glance at the covers and the title page of "Sunday Reading for the Young"|| immediately creates a desire to know something of the contents of a book which presents such an attractive appearance. No less attractive do we find the long and short stories, the series of sketches of women mentioned in the Bible, the short poems, and the delightful pictures which brighten the contents of the book. Several pages contain Bible texts artistically arranged, which the young people will enjoy coloring with crayon or pencil.

Every child will find much to amuse and instruct in "Chatterbox,"§ one of the favorite juvenile publications. It contains a large variety of short poems, sketches, stories, and puzzles, which are fully up to the standard always maintained by this annual visitor. An unusually large number of original il-

lustrations by English artists, including six colored plates, adorn its pages.

The life and times of Christ form the background for the deeds of the young "Swordmaker's Son,"* recounted by William O. Stoddard. The central motive of the story is the Jewish expectation of the Messiah, the disappointment in the character of his kingdom, and the sublime joy of the disciples when his mission is comprehended. The miracles of Christ play an important part in the development of the plot, which reaches its climax in the crucifixion and resurrection. The subject is reverently treated and accuracy in local coloring was secured by the author's personal visit to the Holy Land.

Under the title "A Wonder Book for Girls and Boys"† appears the myths of ancient Greece selected by Nathaniel Hawthorne from classic mythology and retold by him in a manner comprehensible to children. He has embellished them in his own ingenious manner, infusing into them life and vigor which make the legends a delight to all. A dainty binding and fine illustrations make the book also attractive to the eye.

A bright, healthy story for young people is Evelyn Raymond's "A Cape May Diamond,"‡ in which the Diamond is a happy, unselfish, and universally beloved foundling, living with an old German and his wife off the coast of Cape May. The child's truly heroic behavior under trying circumstances and her devotion to her benefactors are finally rewarded and she is restored to her father, who had long mourned her as dead.

The power to recite a story so simply that a child can comprehend it and yet so forcefully that older readers enjoy it is a rare gift. One of those by whom it is possessed is the author of a tender and sympathetic recital called "J. Cole."|| The first part of the narrative, in which the humorous predominates, is a vivid picture of the little page boy who was "not very torl but growin." As the story proceeds it becomes more and more pathetic until the climax is reached.

A real service is being rendered to the literary world by the publication of standard literature in convenient form at a moderate price. One of these publications is a collection of Robert Browning's poems. This edition,

* *The Swordmaker's Son.* By William O. Stoddard. 300 pp. \$1.50. New York: The Century Co.

† *A Wonder Book for Girls and Boys.* By Nathaniel Hawthorne. 233 pp. 75 cts. New York and Boston: Thomas Y. Crowell and Company.

‡ *A Cape May Diamond.* By Evelyn Raymond. Illustrations by Lilian Crawford True. 325 pp. \$1.50. Boston: Roberts Brothers.

|| *J. Cole.* By Emma Gellibrand. 86 pp. \$1.00. New York and Boston: Thomas Y. Crowell and Company.

* *Tales from Hans Andersen.* With Numerous Illustrations by Helen Stratton. 213 pp. \$1.00. New York: The Macmillan Company.

† *Santa Claus's New Castle.* By Maude Florence Bellar. With Illustrations by Dixie Selden. 63 pp. Columbus, O.: Nitschke Brothers.

‡ *A Short Cruise.* By James Otis. 101 pp. 50 cts. New York and Boston: Thomas Y. Crowell and Company.

|| *Sunday Reading for the Young.* 412 pp. New York: E. & J. B. Young and Company.

§ *Chatterbox.* Edited by J. Erskine Clarke, M.A. 412 pp. Board covers. \$1.25. Boston: Estes and Lauriat.

the text of which has been carefully compared with that revised by the author himself, contains critical and biographical introductions and about fifty pages of notes intended to aid the student in analyzing and obtaining an appreciative understanding of the poems.*

The first American edition of Lockhart's "Life of Walter Scott"† appears in a dress of green and gold, with numerous illustrations and a facsimile of a page of the original manuscript of "Ivanhoe." A prefatory letter to Honorable William E. Gladstone occupies several pages, and the text proper opens with the poet's autobiography. This is followed by a most interesting narrative, which admirers of Scott will delight to read.

The famous history of France‡ by Victor Duruy, translated by Mrs. M. Carey and continued to the year 1896 by Dr. Jameson of Brown University, appears in two volumes neatly bound in red, stamped in gold, gilt tops, and in excellent type. Numerous illustrations also add much to the attractiveness of the work. Students of history will find no volumes in which more information is comprehended in the same number of pages.

The new and revised edition of Bourrienne's "Memoirs of Napoleon Bonaparte"§ is in two volumes of convenient size, and they contain many portraits of eminent people. As the author was for many years a personal friend and private secretary of Napoleon he had an opportunity to know intimately the subject of his memoirs and was therefore able, as the editor, Mr. R. W. Phipps, says, to produce a work which can scarcely be paralleled. The editor has added an interesting account of the Hundred Days, of Napoleon's surrender, and of his stay at St. Helena, making a volume replete with valuable information concerning this famous man.

A recent edition of "Don Quixote,"§ translated by John Ormsby, is to be highly commended, not only for the excellent English into which it has been rendered but also for the mechanical workmanship which makes it attractive to the eye as well. The work of the illustrator, Lalauze, adds much interest to the text. A biography of the great Spanish author and an appendix, which includes the proverbs of Don Quixote, a history of

the work in the form of a bibliography, and an account of the literature which inspired Cervante's great work, are other admirable features of the book.

Students of English poetry will be pleased with the contents of the volumes which include the poetical works of Alexander Pope.* Annotations in the form of foot-notes, a memoir of the poet, and an index of first lines are the distinguishing features of the volumes, the text of which is a reprint of the Globe edition.

Religious. The Chicago Woman's Educational Union has done an admirable work in securing the compilation of Scripture selections bearing the title, "Readings from the Bible."† It is especially adapted to the purpose for which it is compiled—for concert reading in the public schools.

A half dozen addresses delivered before the Settlement School of Social Economics, at Chicago Commons, and afterward given in a church in Boston is entitled "Social Meanings of Religious Experiences."‡ They are both lecture-like and sermon-like in character, and deal with the relation of religion to practical problems of the day in a clear, straightforward way.

Bible readers may learn a profitable lesson in methods of Bible study from the Rev. D. L. Moody's "Notes from My Bible."§ It is a reproduction of the notes he has made, which throw light on the various Scripture passages from Genesis to Revelation. A long list of notes on miscellaneous topics are also included in the volume.

Philip Stafford Moxom is the author of a volume called "The Religion of Hope."§ It is a collection of sermons in the first of which by clear and forceful arguments he shows that Christianity is the religion of hope. The remaining sixteen sermons have for their themes subjects of interest to every active Christian worker.

The American Committee for Lectures on the History of Religions is to be congratulated on the success of its first attempt to give the general public an opportunity to learn about the religions

* The Poetical Works of Alexander Pope. Edited by Adolphus William Ward, M.A., Litt.D. Two vols. 625 pp. \$3.00. New York and Boston: Thomas Y. Crowell and Company.

† Readings from the Bible: Selected for Schools and to be read in Unison. Under Supervision of The Chicago Woman's Educational Union. 192 pp. Supplied to Schools at 25 cts. Mailing price, 30 cts. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co.

‡ Social Meanings of Religious Experiences. By George D. Herron. 237 pp. 75 cts. New York and Boston: Thomas Y. Crowell and Company.

§ Notes from My Bible from Genesis to Revelation. By D. L. Moody. 236 pp. \$1.00. Chicago and New York: Fleming H. Revell Company.

§ The Religion of Hope. By Philip Stafford Moxom. 330 pp. \$1.25. Boston: Roberts Brothers.

* Poems of Robert Browning. Edited by Charlotte Porter and Helen A. Clarke. Two vols. 550 pp. \$3.00.—† Life of Sir Walter Scott. By J. G. Lockhart. Prefatory letter by J. R. Hope Scott. Two vols. 662 pp. \$3.00.—‡ A History of France. By Victor Duruy. Translated by Mrs. M. Carey. Introductory Notice and Continuation to the Year 1896 by J. Franklin Jameson, Ph.D. Two vols. 712 pp. \$3.00.—§ Memoirs of Napoleon Bonaparte. By Louis Antoine Fauvelet de Bourrienne. Edited by R. W. Phipps. Two vols. 447+448 pp. \$3.00.—§ The Ingenious Gentleman Don Quixote of La Mancha. By Miguel de Cervantes Saavedra. Translated by John Ormsby. Two vols. 534+574 pp. \$3.00. New York and Boston: Thomas Y. Crowell and Company.

of the world from those who have made a specialty of that branch of study. The first lectures for which the committee arranged were delivered before several of our prominent educational institutions by Professor T. W. Rhys Davids on "The History and Literature of Buddhism,"* and now appear neatly bound in book form. The language is clear and concise, leaving no room for ambiguity, a quality which adds to the interest and force of the lectures.

In "Heredity and Christian Problems"† the author discusses the effect of environment and heredity on the physical, mental, and moral nature of individuals. From his telling arguments, to strengthen which he brings apt and copious illustrations, he concludes that however one may account for the personality of men "it is impossible to account for the personality of Jesus Christ by either heredity or environment, or by both."

From the origin of the Wesleyan movement in America to the close of the conference held in Philadelphia in 1773 is the period of time which Dr. John Atkinson's history of Wesleyanism‡ covers. Into the narrative he has brought the names of a large number of Christian workers whose influence had much to do with the founding of Methodism in America. The work they did, their successes, their failures, and their sufferings are combined into an interesting history.

A book which sermonizers and Bible students in general will fully appreciate is a commentary on the New Testament Scriptures. The first of a series of eleven volumes explanatory of the New Testament is a comprehensive exposition of the Gospel according to St. Matthew.¶ The notes are descriptive, exegetical, and homiletic in character, and many sources of information have been made to contribute to the general excellence of the work. Clear type, neat and substantial binding, are the characteristic qualities of the make-up of the book.

Teachers in the Sunday-school always welcome every book designed to aid in the preparation of the lessons and in the presentation of the truths of the Scripture. Such a book is "Illustrative Notes,"§ prepared by the Revs. Jesse L. Hurlbut and Robert

R. Doherty. It includes a large number of comments, many of them original, illustrative stories, notes on life in the far East, with numerous illustrations, maps, tables, and diagrams. The suggestions on methods of teaching and the practical applications to be made of the lessons are among the many helps embodied in this useful volume.

"A Daily Thought for a Daily Endeavor"* is the title of a compilation of beautiful and helpful thoughts for each day of the year. The texts of Scripture are followed by appropriate selections in prose and verse bearing upon the subject chosen for the day and representing some of the most eminent pulpit orators and writers. The compilation is a mine of elevating and inspiring thought which will fill the life with courage and cheerfulness.

Some of the choicest bits of truth uttered by the speakers at the Northfield Conferences have been selected to form the contents of "The Northfield Year-Book,"† a small volume which offers a gem for each day of the year. Portraits of some of the favorite speakers and small views of beautiful nooks about Northfield accompany the text. The volume is neatly bound in green covers stamped in dark green and gold.

Miscellaneous. In "Colonial Days in Old New York"‡ Alice Morse Earle has skilfully brought together a vast amount of interesting information concerning the habits and customs of the people in the colonial days of New Netherland, thus helping to perpetuate the memory of those days when the Dutch had possession of the colony, the influence of which time has not been able to efface. The author has wisely chosen not only the most entertaining facts and incidents but those which also give the reader a clear insight into the character of the times. So lucid are the descriptions that the reader seems to live in the early days of our country's history.

Robert Howard Russell in "The Edge of the Orient"|| takes the reader into a beautiful part of the world little visited by European travelers. Starting at Vienna the route is by rail to Trieste, where this mode of travel is changed for a steamer which takes the travelers along the eastern coast of the Adriatic Sea, stopping at Zara, Sebenico, Scardona, Traù, Spalato, Curzola, Ragusa and Cattaro. At the last-named place the steamer is abandoned for "a little yellow ramshackle, four-wheeled

*A Daily Thought for a Daily Endeavor. Compiled by Eleanor Amerman Sutphen and Eliza Polhemus Sutphen. 377 pp. \$1.25. New York: The Baker & Taylor Co.

†The Northfield Year-Book for Each Day. Selected and arranged by Delavan L. Pierson. Illustrated by Mary A. Lathbury. 379 pp. New York and Chicago: Fleming H. Revell Company.

‡Colonial Days in Old New York. By Alice Morse Earle. 312 pp.—||The Edge of the Orient. By Robert Howard Russell. 288 pp. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

* Buddhism: Its History and Literature. By T. W. Rhys Davids, LL.D., Ph.D. 243 pp. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

† Heredity and Christian Problems. By Amory H. Bradford. 295 pp. \$1.50. New York: Macmillan and Co.

‡ The Beginnings of the Wesleyan Movement in America and the Establishment therein of Methodism. By John Atkinson, D.D. 468 pp. \$3.00. New York: Hunt & Eaton. Cincinnati: Cranston and Curtis.

¶ A Homiletical Commentary on the Gospel according to St. Matthew. By Rev. W. Sunderland Lewis, M.A., and Rev. Henry M. Booth. 679 pp. \$3.00. New York: Funk & Wagnalls Company.

§ Illustrative Notes. By Jesse Lyman Hurlbut and Robert Remington Doherty. 376 pp. \$1.25. New York: Eaton & Mains. Cincinnati: Curtis & Jennings.

vehicle of a nondescript type, having three shaggy and underfed little mountain horses, fastened together in a bunch with ropes and strings, to draw it," by means of which a visit is made to Cetinje. Constantinople, Damascus, and cities of Egypt are also included in the trip. The author proves an interesting guide, describing objects and giving bits of information in a taking way, and illustrating these with a large number of most excellent pictures.

A collection of tales bearing the title "The Tin Kitchen"* contains four autobiographical sketches by articles once owned by people of ancient times. Each of the articles—the tin kitchen, the old clock, the teapot, and the satin shoes—tells its experience and relates important incidents which occurred in the family to which it belonged. Unique, interesting, and well told, the stories can be used for select readings in entertainments.

The new departure made by the Hoosier poet, J. Whitcomb Riley, in "A Child-World"† is sure to please the reading public. Though the plan has not the appearance of originality the material which he has incorporated into it is new and expresses with the simplicity and inimitable humor for which the poet is noted the tender sentiments and pure affections of the human heart. It is really a story in verse of the delightful experiences and surroundings of childhood. It begins with a graphic picture of the home itself. The poet then presents the different members of the family and the childhood companions, following this with an account of an evening party at which both old and young contribute a story or music to the evening's entertainment. The author has prevented a monotony in rhythm by varying the meter and the whole is a charming picture which will bring to the reader memories of his childhood days.

Something more than a dozen essays dealing with different phases of nature and "conceptions of the art of life" are collected into a volume called "Scholar Gipsies."‡ One of the best of these essays is the first. It points out the advantages and blessings to be gained from a life in the open air in close communion with nature. Moralizings, criticisms, and delineations of character and nature give variety to these papers, which the author says in the preface "were written in youth, when a man's thoughts run on diverse things." A half dozen etchings appear in the volume.

The introduction to the new edition of Izaak Walton's "The Compleat Angler"|| is the work of

Andrew Lang. It gives a succinct account of the events in Walton's life and many interesting facts concerning the ancient and modern methods of fishing. The volume is profusely illustrated by E. J. Sullivan, whose sketches show a keen appreciation of the time and the work of the author. A few pages of notes are appended to the text and the covers in green and gold are artistically stamped with an appropriate design.

"Lazy Tours in Spain and Elsewhere"* describes a journey through Europe, taken by the writer and four other ladies, with a guide whom from his ministerial demeanor they term the Vicar of Wakefield. Free from the usually tiresome details of a book of travel, the work is a natural and delightful narrative in which the writer has recorded her impressions of the people and places of interest in Spain, Italy, France, Germany, Switzerland, and England. Entertaining and instructive, the work is well worth careful study.

Teneriffe, one of the Canary Islands, is the place which Julia A. Dabney has made the scene of an interesting story entitled "Little Daughter of the Sun."† After the opening pages, which are descriptive in character and somewhat stilted in style, the author seems to lose herself in the story; the style becomes more natural, and the characters, of Spanish descent for the most part, act out the individuality with which the author has invested them.

In "Saul,"‡ a poem by Browning, the poet tells with great power how, in order to drive away the melancholy which possessed Saul, he played in succession the shepherd's tune, the melody which entrances the birds, and the harvest and marriage songs. Each scene delineated by the poet is the subject of a beautiful picture in which the orientalism of the poem is fully brought out. The volume, exquisitely printed and richly bound, is a gift-book suitable for library or drawing-room table.

Edna Lyall has taken up her pen in behalf of the Armenians and "The Autobiography of a Truth"|| is the result. The characters in the story are, of course, fictitious but the sad incidents portrayed are far from being so. Yet the book is not a sickening recital of horrors but a romance ending happily because truth triumphs. Its reading ought to awaken increased sympathy for a persecuted race. The profits from the sale of the work go to the Armenian Relief Fund.

A study of life in the Jewish quarter of New York is presented by A. Cahan under the title

*The Tin Kitchen. By J. Hatton Weeks. 92 pp. 75 cts. New York and Boston: Thomas Y. Crowell and Company.

†A Child-World. By James Whitcomb Riley. 209 pp. Indianapolis and Kansas City: The Bowen-Merrill Company.

‡Scholar Gipsies. By John Buchan. 205 pp. \$1.75.—|| The Compleat Angler. By Izaak Walton. Edited with an Introduction by Andrew Lang. Illustrated by E. J. Sullivan. New York: The Macmillan Company.

*Lazy Tours in Spain and Elsewhere. By Louise Chandler Moulton. 377 pp.—† Little Daughter of the Sun. By Julia A. Dabney. 209 pp. \$1.25. Boston: Roberts Brothers.

‡Saul. By Robert Browning. Illustrated by Frank O. Small. 45 pp. \$1.50. New York and Boston: Thomas Y. Crowell and Company.

||The Autobiography of a Truth. By Edna Lyall. 114 pp. Paper, 30 cts. New York: Longmans, Green and Co.

"Yekl."* The principal character, Yekl, a Russian Jew, is in America to make a home for his wife and child whom he has left in their native country. During the three years of separation he becomes very much Americanized, so he thinks, and when his wife, Gitele, arrives he has the ungraciousness to be ashamed of her foreign ways. This offensive characteristic causes trouble from which divorce is the only relief. A Polish maiden also figures in the plot, which is not at all complicated but which has served the author's purpose in presenting the unpleasantness of the American Ghetto.

Many things which a girl ought to know and knowing which will save her many embarrassments and feelings of mortification are embodied in Ruth Ashmore's "Side Talks with Girls."† Not only does it deal with social life but with life in the home and a girl's religious life, what she shall read and how she shall talk. It is full of interest.

A book most valuable to the housekeeper and the cook is "Food Products of the World,"‡ by Mary E. Green, M. D., a member of the American Medical Association. The contents of this volume are very comprehensive and presented in a way calculated to attract as well as instruct the reader. The hygienic and nutritive values of the different foods are explained and much is told of the chemical properties and values of certain food articles. The frequent allusions made to the exhibit of food products at the Columbian Exposition are also very instructive. The book is substantially bound in blue appropriately stamped and well illustrated.

Elizabeth S. Tucker has written a fine tribute to the memory of a favorite author which she calls "Leaves from Juliana Horatia Ewing's 'Canada Home.'"|| It is a record, complete and entertaining, of the two years which Mrs. Ewing spent in the city of Fredericton, New Brunswick, to which place she accompanied her husband, who was ordered to Canada with his regiment in 1867. Mrs. Ewing's letters written to various home friends make up the second part of the volume and they reveal the beautiful character of the writer. The book is amply illustrated, some of the pictures being reproductions of drawings by Mrs. Ewing.

Vividly has the author of "Country Clouds and Sunshine"§ portrayed life as it is in New England.

*Yekl. A Tale of the New York Ghetto. By A. Cahan. 190 pp. \$1.00. New York: D. Appleton and Company.

†Side Talks with Girls. By Ruth Ashmore. 260 pp. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

‡Food Products of the World. Mary E. Green, M. D. Edited and Illustrated by Grace Green Bohn. 267 pp. Chicago: The Hotel World.

||Leaves from Juliana Horatia Ewing's "Canada Home." By Elizabeth S. Tucker. 145 pp. \$3.00. Boston: Roberts Brothers.

§A Book of Country Clouds and Sunshine. Text and Illustrations by Clifton Johnson. 213 pp. \$2.50. Boston: Lee and Shepard.

The farmer and his ways and village life and character are delineated with truth and beauty both by pen and camera. The author does not permit us to see only the sunshine of life among the New England hills and vales, but he brings out both the prose and poetry of existence there with a sympathetic touch which shows a real love for the warm summers and vigorous winters of that section of the United States.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

HUNT & EATON, NEW YORK. CRANSTON & CURTS, CINCINNATI. Marshall, William. Nature as a Book of Symbols. 90 cts.

Pearse, Mark Guy. Gold and Incense: A West Country Story. 35 cts.

Stephenson, James, D.D. Uncle Ben and Other Poems; With an Essay on Poetry and Religion. \$1.00.

CHARLES H. KERR AND COMPANY, CHICAGO.

Winston, Patrick Henry. American Catholics and the A. P. A. 25 cts.

WILBUR B. KETCHAM, NEW YORK.

Gilbert, Josiah H. Dictionary of Burning Words of Brilliant Writers; A Cyclopaedia of Quotations from the Literature of all Ages. \$2.00.

LAMSON, WOLFFE AND COMPANY, BOSTON.

Nodier, Charles. Trilby the Fairy of Argyle. Translated from the French by Minna Caroline Smith.

LEE AND SHEPARD, BOSTON.

Beecher, Rev. Charles. Patmos, or The Unveiling. \$1.50. Stecher, W. A. Gymnastics: A Text-book of the German-American System of Gymnastics. \$3.00.

LONGMANS, GREEN AND COMPANY, NEW YORK.

Milton, John. L'Allegro, Il Penseroso, Comus, and Lycidas. Edited with Notes and Introduction by William P. Trent, M.A.

MACMILLAN AND CO., NEW YORK.

Arnold, Matthew, and Morley, John. A Guide to English Literature, Essay on Gray, On the Study of Literature. 75 cts. Browne, Sir Thomas. Hydriothaphia and the Garden of Cyrus.

Edited by the late W. A. Greenhill, M.D., Oxon. \$1.00.

Brown, J. T. T. The Authorship of the Kings Quair: A New Criticism. \$1.50.

Brewster, W. T., A.M. Studies in Structure and Style. \$1.10. Dalbiac, Philip Hugh, M.P. Dictionary of Quotations (English). \$2.00.

Gardner, Ernest Arthur, M.A. A Handbook of Greek Sculpture. \$1.25.

Leslie, George D., R.A. Riverside Letters: A Continuation of "Letters to Marco." \$2.00.

Lubbock, Right Hon. Sir John, Bart, M.P. The Scenery of Switzerland and the Causes to Which It is Due. \$1.50.

THE MERRIAM COMPANY, NEW YORK.

Bowen, Helen M. A Daughter of Cuba. 50 cts.

King, K. Douglas. The Scripture Reader of St. Mark's. 50 cts.

THE MORSE COMPANY, NEW YORK AND BOSTON.

Ford, Nellie Walton. Nature's Byways. Natural Science for Primary Pupils. 40 cts.

THE PENN PUBLISHING COMPANY, PHILADELPHIA.

Griffith, B. L. C. and Others. Monologues and Novelties. Paper, 30 cts.

Shoemaker, Mrs. J. W. Shoemaker's Best Selections for Readings and Recitations, Number 24. Paper, 30 cts.*

Shoemaker, Mrs. J. W. Best Things from Best Authors, Vol. VIII. Comprising Numbers 22, 23, and 24 of Shoemaker's Best Selections.

Shoemaker, Mrs. J. W., aided by George B. Hynson and John H. Bechtel. Advanced Elocution Designed as a Practical Treatise for Teachers, and Students in Vocal Training, Physical Culture, and Gesture. \$1.25.

THE PETER PAUL BOOK COMPANY, BUFFALO.

Woodward, Geo. A. The Diary of a "Peculiar" Girl.

RAND, McNALLY AND COMPANY, CHICAGO AND NEW YORK.

The Rand-McNally Elementary Geography. 70 cts.

FLEMING H. REVELL COMPANY, NEW YORK AND CHICAGO.

Elliott, E. S. Expectation Corner or "Is Your Door Open?" Paper, 10 cts.

Gordon, Ernest B. Adoniram Judson Gordon; A Biography \$1.50.

Lee, James W. Henry W. Grady: The Editor, the Orator, the Man. 50 cts.

McCartney, Catherine Robertson. The Hero of the Ages, A Story of the Nazarene. \$1.00.

Meyer, F. B., B.A. David, Shepherd, Psalmist, King. \$1.00.



See page 532.

LOUIS XIV. OF FRANCE.

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REQUIRED READING FOR THE CHAUTAUQUA LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CIRCLE.

MASTERPIECES OF FRENCH PAINTING.*

BY HORACE TOWNSEND.

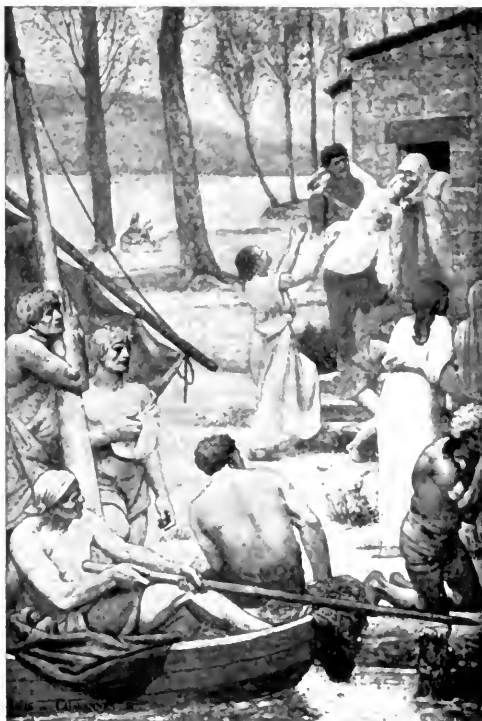
TO the average American Paris is not alone the chosen city of pleasure; it is in at least an equal degree the art center of the world. For nearly half a century indeed it was so held to be by the whole of the civilized world. To-day, even though in many directions the supremacy of France as an artistic monitor is fiercely but with reason attacked, it is to Paris that the painters of every nation turn as though to the Mecca of their craft. That this should be so is due to more than one reason, but it would not serve my present purpose to set these forward at any length, or indeed to do more than call attention to one and the most vitally important of them.

The American, the English, the Belgian,

the Dutch, the Spanish, the Scandinavian student betakes himself to the city on the Seine not so much to learn *what* as *how* to

paint. It is to-day rather as brilliant craftsmen, as masters of technique in the highest sense of the word, that the French School of painters dominates the world of art. Lofty imagination, poetic visualization, moral purpose, idealistic intensity—all these qualities and others no less worthy of admiration are to be found among the other nations in possibly a greater degree, but it is the French alone who have not only caught to perfection the trick of craftsmanship from the masters of the sixteenth century but are able to impart it to others.

It is, I am inclined to think, largely this faculty of instruction by the communication of ideas inherent in the French character,



From the painting by Chavannes.

The Pantheon.

PASTORAL LIFE OF ST. GENEVIÈVE.

*The Notes on the Required Reading in THE CHAUTAUQUAN will be found following those on the books of the course, in the C. L. S. C. Department of the magazine.

aided perhaps by a well-developed logical sense, which has enabled the mid-nineteenth century painters to impress themselves as forcibly as they did, not only upon their own kinsmen and generation but upon their outlying neighbors and transatlantic admirers as well. Their influence was not so much individual as scholastic. From the days of Pinchbeck and soulless classicism, identified with the names of David¹ and his followers, Guérin, Jean Baptiste Regnault, and Lethière,² to these present ones, marked by the determined revolt from the immediate traditions of their forerunners, brought about by such impressionists as Manet, Degas, Renoir, and Monet,³ one can trace easily and clearly the growth, the interrelation, and the varying influence of the different schools. At the same time it may be recognized that national characteristics and racial

peculiarities have played their part distinctly and insistently.

Consider for a moment the neo-classic revival, to which I have made momentary reference, in the early years of the century, headed by Jacques Louis David, who, by the way, is not to be confounded, as he frequently is, with the celebrated sculptor of the same surname. The effective yearning for the supposed Republican severity of antiquity which ran through revolutionary France as though it were an epidemic was doubtless in the main responsible for David's extravagances of method, but the spirit underlying these more obvious individualisms was in its essence that which has animated each successive generation of French painters, however varying may be their style. Reliance upon tradition, tempered by a logical appreciation of the fact too often forgot-



From the painting by Delaroche.

The Louvre.



From the painting by Ingres.

The Louvre.

CHRIST GIVING TO ST. PETER THE KEYS OF PARADISE.

ten by the Teutonic races, that this same tradition must be a silken cord to guide rather than a steel fetter to bind, takes leading place in the methods of the vast majority of nineteenth century French painters. While this continues to be so France will still remain the great art teacher of Europe. That she

does not to-day hold her supreme place of aforesaid is due not so much to a weakening of her artistic faculty as to the fact that she has taught her lesson so well to other nations that they have learned all she has to teach, have added to it something of their own, either of temperament or intellectuality,

and have thus in some degree bettered the instruction. To quote Tennyson's somewhat garbled phrase,

Most can raise the flower now,
For all have got the seed.

Let us briefly run over the honor roll of French art and see what manner of men they are who have forced their recognition,

not upon their fellows alone but upon the entire civilized world.

I have referred to the influence of David on French art. This was not exercised so much through his own works, which, as I have hinted, were wanting in vitality and force and in their heartlessness and coldness suggested too much second-rate sculpture,



From the painting by J. F. Raffaelli.

THE OLD CONVALESCENTS.

as through the band of enthusiastic and devoted students whom after his return to Paris from his long residence in Rome he gathered around him and infused with much of his own sentiment.

Chief among these was Dominique Ingres,⁴ who by many latter-day critics, including Mr. George Moore, is considered one of the most noteworthy painters produced by the France of this century. Entering the studio of David at the age of sixteen, it was in 1802 that Ingres painted his first important work. Four years later he went to Italy, where he remained for nearly twenty years, returning to Paris to find the school of his former master supplanted by that of Delacroix. In 1834 Ingres returned once more to Rome as director of the French Academy in that city, but the early forties found him once more in Paris, where he remained until his death.

Probably one of the most consummate draftsmen the world has seen since Leonardo da Vinci, Ingres is chiefly known, as he is most worthily represented, by his four pictures in the Louvre, including "La Source" and "La Baigneuse."⁵ Although in his later years he shook off the more apparent influence of David and attached himself to the Romantic School of Delacroix, he was yet, to all intents and purposes, a classicist rather than a romanticist.



From the painting by Jules Breton.

The Luxembourg.

THE GLEANER.

Perhaps a word is due to the nascence of the Romantic School referred to in the last paragraph. This was a movement, comparable to that in literature, which aimed at emancipation from the yoke of academic formality which the followers of David had imposed on their successors. One of the most notable leaders of this revolt—a revolt

so absolute as to amount almost to a renaissance—was Eugene Delacroix, who as a youth studied under Guérin, who in his turn had been a pupil of Jean Baptiste Regnault, whose "Three Graces" at present in the Louvre was perhaps the first outward symbol of the protest even in his day growing in power against the cold tyranny of the classicists. But Delacroix and Ingres went farther than either Guérin or Regnault, as Delacroix's "Shipwrecked Mariners" and "Entrance of Baldwin into Constantinople,"

to Paris in the early years of the century, and was apprenticed to Guérin, but save in his draftsmanship he was little indebted to that master, for the delicacy and softness of his technical execution are all his own. His most celebrated picture, perhaps, is his "Francesca da Rimini," and next his series taken from Goethe's "Faust" and some of his religious paintings, notably "St. Monica" and "Christ the Consoler."

Of sturdier fiber was Paul Delaroche,⁶ the celebrated historical painter, who studied



From the painting by Mauve.

THE SHEPHERDESS.

and the masterpieces of Ingres, to which I have already made reference, serve excellently to show.

There are other names which besprinkle with glory French art of the first three or four decades of our century. Ary Scheffer, the somewhat cloying beauty of whose compositions renders them to this day highly popular with the masses, even though they incur the artist's reproach of prettiness, was born at Dordrecht of French parents, came

under Gros and whose mark was made before he was thirty, when he produced his famous "Vincent de Paul Preaching," "Joan of Arc in Prison," and his fine "St. Sebastian." His chief work, however, was the decoration in fresco of the amphitheater of the Palais des Beaux Arts.⁷ To this noble production, known as the "Hemicycle," Delaroche devoted nearly five years, introducing between sixty and seventy full-length portraits of the most eminent painters, sculp-

tors, architects, and engravers, grouped on either side of a throne on which sat Ictinus, Apelles, and Phidias,⁸ typifying respectively architecture, painting, and sculpture.

Nor must Horace Vernet,⁹ the father in art of those excellent painters of military subjects and battle scenes who have ennobled the later record of French art, be forgotten. He was the grandson of a celebrated marine painter, and was born in 1780, having produced by the time he was twenty-five his notable "*Barriere de Clichy*," the "*Capture of the Redoubt*," and the "*Massacre of the Mamelukes*," while later in life he produced a noteworthy series illustrative of the victories achieved by the French armies in Algeria, the best known perhaps being "*The Capture of the Smala of Abd-el-Kader*."

Jean Hippolyte Flandrin,¹⁰ another distinguished painter of the Ingres School, though his historical pictures, painted when he was a young man, are distinctly meritorious, is perhaps better known by his decorative work, chiefly of an ecclesiastical description. Couture, also a pupil of Delaroche, painted in the manner of that master some satisfactory historical pictures, including "*The Romans in the Decadence of the Empire*." Toward the middle of the century we find names even more familiar commanding our attention. Decamps,¹¹ for instance, who has been called the forerunner of the Barbizon masters, to whom I shall subsequently refer, is chiefly celebrated for his pictures of oriental subjects, marked by their realism and beauty of color. Troyon, too, who began life as a painter on porcelain, but soon sought a wider field, in the early thirties began to exhibit in the Salon. His "*Fête at Sèvres*" and his "*Park at St. Cloud*" first revealed his magnificent capabilities as a landscape painter, but these were far surpassed by his "*View in Brittany*," painted in 1841, and some years later by his "*Going to Market*," perhaps one of the finest examples of his work. It is almost safe to say that, with the exception of the English painter Constable, no one has so influenced the landscape art of our own day as Troyon.

I have referred both to the Barbizon

School and to Constable, and it is fitting that I should now point out how these two influences worked together to produce that magnificent school of French landscapists who have done so much to make the art of their country almost a household word in the United States. It was in 1824 that Constable's "*Hay-wain*" was exhibited at Paris and served well-nigh as a revelation to the younger school of French painters. It is curious that Constable, who was so peculiarly an English painter, should have impressed himself and his method more strongly upon the art of France than upon that of his own country. He stands indeed preeminently at the head of modern realistic landscape painters, but it seems to have taken years for his countrymen to discover what the Frenchmen of nigh two generations ago appreciated almost at a glance. It was he who opened the eyes of French landscape painters to the importance of values, and he may almost be said to have been the first painter who mastered the difficulty of rendering them.

Although, as I have said, Troyon owed much of his eminence to Constable, it is among the so-called Barbizon School that his influence may most clearly be traced. It was between 1830 and 1840 that there arose this new school, so called from the name of the little village on the borders of Fontainebleau, near to which its first members worked. Although they may have owed their original inspiration to the "*Hay-wain*" and one or two others of Constable's pictures which were acquired by the French government, they very soon achieved an independent position, alike for themselves as individuals and for their school as an entity. Discarding the traditions of the past, which at that time hampered the painter from nature almost as much as the subject the historical painter, they went straight to nature, and painted it as they saw it. Among the members of this great school were Theodore Rousseau, Camille Corot, Charles François Daubigny, Jean François Millet, and Narcisse Virgile Diaz de la Peña.

The story of Rousseau's life is in its essence that of many a great artist, and of

more than one member of the school which I am now considering. It is a story of lifelong struggle against the contempt and ignorance of those who have been the first to cheer and encourage him. Year after year he found his pictures rejected by the Salon, and year after year he continued patiently working according to the inner light vouchsafed to him, until, permanently embittered, and with his natural sensitiveness increased until it had become almost a disease, he died of a broken heart at the last crowning insult bestowed upon him, when in 1867 the little bit of ribbon of the Legion of Honor, on which he had set his heart, was withheld from him and granted to no fewer than five artists, none of whom was more worthy than he of its bestowal. Early in life it was only the warm approval and practical encouragement of Ary Scheffer which enabled him to follow his artistic inclinations and to achieve his first modified success in 1838 with his "*Côtés de Grandville*." By this time he was already wedded to the glades and alleys of the forest of Fontainebleau, and here or in this immediate neighborhood he passed the rest of his sad life with Millet for neighbor and Diaz for pupil. His "*Alley of Chestnut Trees*" and "*Early Summer Morning*" may be mentioned as two of his most typical works.

Like Rousseau, Corot was a Parisian, and came of a worthy *bourgeois* family, by whom as a youth he was apprenticed to a draper. The artistic instinct, however, was strong within him, and in spite of all opposition he determined to be a painter. He entered the studio of Michallon¹² in 1822 and afterward studied under Bertin. It was in Italy, however, whither he went to study while still a young man, that he steeped himself in that classic sentiment which, underlying the fidelity of his transcripts from nature, gives to his work its peculiar charm and value. No landscape painter of our generation has deserved in equal degree the title of poet. Supreme in his mastery of technique, he was yet never seduced into the belief that technique alone could make a great artist. We have

only to glance at his most celebrated pictures, such as "*The Flute Player*," his "*Dance of Nymphs*," his "*Homer and the Shepherds*," his "*Idyll*," which forms one of the chief glories of the Louvre, and his "*Morning*" and "*Evening*" to see that each one of his canvases expresses an idea, and is pervaded with almost a superabundance of sentiment, and that, while from one point of view they are sincerely realistic, from another they represent the very apotheosis of imaginative ideality. To-day he is perhaps a stronger influence in France than either Rousseau, Daubigny, or Diaz.

The last named, although the son of Spanish parents, was born in France and was the favorite pupil of Rousseau. It is as a colorist that Diaz gained his fame, and in his landscapes, truthful as they are, he allowed this love of rich and glowing color to run riot. As for Daubigny, who was a pupil of Granet and Delaroche, he is known to us chiefly by his river subjects such as the "*Seine at Bezons*" and the "*Banks of the Oise*."

It is Jean Francois Millet, however, who is after all one of the chief glories of the Barbizon School. One finds it difficult in his case to disassociate the work of the artist from his life, of which it was so true a reflection. The son of poor peasant parents, Millet remained to the end of his hard, laborious, honest life the peasant. To him nature revealed itself not through the glowing haze of poetic imagination, in which to the other masters of the Barbizon School it was steeped, but as the stern, if kind, mother, by whom the lives of those sad peasants he loved so well to paint were subtly influenced. It was the reaper rather than the field of golden grain he saw, the gleaner rather than the bare stubble, the sower rather than the rolling stretch of freshly turned-up earth who stirred his soul to its inmost depths and wrung from him recognition of the dignity and the poetry of suffering and of labor.

Although of his pictures his "*Angelus du Soir*"¹³ has, owing to its sensational and ingenious puffery, received the boldest

advertisement, so far as the United States is concerned at all events, it is by no means his most thoughtful or most justly celebrated work. Where all are so admirable, however, it is an ill work to overestimate one above another. I need only say that among his finest pictures are "The Reapers," "The Sheep Shearers," "The Gleaners," "The Man with the Hoe," "The Sower," and the "Peasant Grafting a Tree." Of his life it is enough to say that it was one long struggle with poverty, relieved only at its close by a few wintry gleams of encouragement.

It must not be supposed, however, that the Barbizon School summed up in themselves all the excellence of the mid-century French painters. Such names as those of Charles Bastien La Page, who during his short life left an ineradicable mark upon his generation as one of the most notable of the so-called *plein airists*, and whose "Joan of Arc" is, with all its limitations, a great painting; Edouard Frere, a pupil of Delaroche, whose renderings of the simple and everyday scenes of the life of the lower classes, with their low tones and subtle harmonies of color, are among the choicest treasures of many an American collection; Alphonse Marie de Neuville, the artistic descendant of Horace Vernet, whose "Last Cartridge" is perhaps one of the finest anecdotal pictures which owe their being to the incidents of the Franco-German War; Gustav Courbet, whose more promising career was cut short by his regrettable connection with the iconoclastic vagaries of the Commune; Regnault, whose "General Prim" is one of the most noteworthy of American equestrian portraits, and whose career, like that of Regnault, though in a different and more worthy manner, was cut short by the War of 1870; all these are among those who have passed away and have yet left behind them distinct and noteworthy influences.

Nor is France of to-day without many names which are worthy to compare with the great ones of the past. In many instances, indeed, those still living have in their youth borne the burden and heat of

the day with those who have passed away, and are at least as worthy of our regard in that their influence is a living and an ever active one. Bouguereau, for instance, who, though the verdict of time will probably not place him among the greatest of his generation, has done something more than supply the galleries of rich collectors with his idealistic rendering of the poetical nude. He has been a teacher almost as long as he has been a painter, and his consummate gifts of technique have been offered by him to younger generations with no niggard hand. Jules Breton, uniting realism with sturdy sentiment, has not only made his beloved Brittany, with its picturesquely somber peasants, familiar to the civilized world but has coincidentally produced pictures which from a painter's point of view are marked by all the excellences of magnificent drawing and harmonious color.

Antoine Mauve, who, though a Dutchman by birth, is in art and by education a lineal descendant of the Barbizon School, has not only worthily carried on the best traditions of these masters but from a purely technical point of view has added to them a touch of modernity which gives to his luminous landscapes a beauty that is all their own. Henner, more limited and confined in his range than should be the case with a really great artist, has yet shown how admirable, in both line and color, may be a craftsman's work, within well-defined, even if self-imposed, limits. Meissonier,¹⁴ again, though it is the fashion nowadays in some critical circles to decry his work and his methods, teaches us, too, this lesson of the value of painstaking technique. Carolus Duran, Alexandre Cabanel, Leon Bonnat, J. Charles Cazin, Dagnan-Bouveret,¹⁵ and a score of other familiar names are living exemplars of that lesson which, as I began by saying, it has been given to France of this century to teach—namely, that the first duty of a painter is to know how to paint.

Signs have not been wanting, however, that as the century is closing French painters are recognizing what a decade ago they seemed to be in danger of forgetting,

however, borne good fruit, and military education has been much improved since 1870. Rifles, guns, and all the necessities of warfare are kept constantly on hand for an army of 4,000,000 men. A military writer ("Armies of To-day") says:

The instruction of the French Army has been developed, and even its amusements have assumed a more serious tone. The child is obliged to go to school before he becomes a soldier. In 1870 the army was badly trained, badly armed, poorly officered, and always in the presence of a superior force. Under new influences and new conditions the soldier has changed and has cultivated endurance, stolidity, contempt of danger, zeal, and pluck. The French soldier is warlike, rather than military. He has bravery, which is the legendary virtue of the Gauls.

I have already alluded to the fact that military service is compulsory in all European states, so that their armies really represent the people in arms. France and Russia have the most stringent laws in enforcement of the general liability to do military duty.

The French military law of July 15, 1889, is even more rigid in its provisions than the original law of 1872 which it supersedes. Practically it recognizes no exemption from military service whatever. Limited furloughs in time of peace are granted to those who are officially certified as supporters of families and to teachers or students at certain designated educational institutions.

As it is impossible to keep under arms for three years the entire annual contingent of recruits the law provides for the discharge of thoroughly trained men at the end of the first or second year of active service in such proportions as to bring down the peace strength of the army to the number annually determined upon by the General Assembly. Preferences in this connection are decided by lot; for this purpose every recruit at his enrollment draws a number, and only those having the highest numbers are entitled to consideration.

In Russia, as in France, the entire male population is subject to military duty, while, contrary perhaps to the general opinion, in Germany, Austria, and Italy the require-

ments of civil life receive far more consideration than in France.

By the act of July, 1889, the liability to service continues twenty-five years, beginning at twenty-one. Of this time ten years is spent in the "active" army (the French have no militia), and generally three years of this time in the ranks and seven in the reserve. Six years are in the territorial army and nine in the reserve of the latter. The reservists do military duty each year during two periods of four weeks' duration each, and the men of the territorial army have one period of fourteen days. This is somewhat similar to our militia laws by which the National Guard goes into camp for a week or ten days every year.

By a law passed in 1890 the government was authorized to call out the territorial army reserve, heretofore exempt from all calls to active service, for the purpose of training them in guard duty on the property of common carriers, such as railroads, telegraph lines, etc.

It is worthy of note that France is the only great power which levies a tax from such of her citizens as either do not enlist in the standing army or who enlist for a shorter term than three years. Only those who are officially declared "impecunious" are exempt from such a tax. It is payable annually as long as the liability to service lasts, and the revenue from this source amounts to about 30,000,000 francs, or \$6,000,000, annually.

France devotes 31 per cent of its annual revenues for army purposes, Russia 35 per cent, and Germany 19.2 per cent.

The officers of the French Army receive a very thorough education at the different military schools. At the head of these (although not exclusively military) stands the Polytechnic School in Paris, which admits 150 pupils annually after a competitive examination. The course occupies nine months in the year for two years. A thorough civil education, largely mathematical, is given at this school and all candidates for the artillery or engineer corps take their degree here before entering the School of Application founded at Metz

in 1802, but now located at Fontainebleau. This latter school is solely for officers of the artillery or engineers, and the course requires two years.

The military school at St. Cyr, founded in 1808, is for officers of infantry and cavalry. The course lasts two years, and candidates must be graduates of the lyceums. There is also a staff school at Paris, where a number of the graduates at St. Cyr are educated for staff duty. There are also other schools for officers of different corps, as the "Écoles du Génie" and the cavalry school at Naumur.

I have thus taken a somewhat superficial glance at the French Army, its men and its officers. The system adopted for raising armies and for giving them capable officers seems to be reasonably thorough and complete. It used to be said of the German soldier that he was vastly superior in education and better instructed in his duties than the Frenchman. This is not as true to-day, for while it is true that nearly every German soldier has some education, still only 9.8 per cent of the French Army are uneducated, while in Russia 70 per cent are in that condition.

To show the detailed nature of the examinations for officers the following are given in the *Army and Navy Journal* as samples of questions at a recent French military examination: "You are quartered in a town in which there is a menagerie. A lion escapes and runs through the streets. What would you do?" The correct answer was that the officer would first of all proceed to a butcher's shop and procure a large piece of beef. Then, accompanied by four crack shots, he would sally forth in search of the wild beast, to which, when found, he would present the meat. While the lion was devouring the beef the four marksmen would each put a bullet into the animal, and all would be over. Here is another question: "You have requisitioned oxen, sheep, and goats for a campaign in the Alps. What precautions do you adopt?" The only answer accepted was that the officer would also requisition a number of large knives to enable the troops to cut up

the meat. Which only goes to show that there is something of humor in even the most serious subjects.

The French Navy ranks next to that of England in numbers, while in efficiency and fighting qualities the French ships are fully equal to their English rivals. In fact in naval architecture the French early took the lead and many of the English types of ships were modeled after the French designs. The author of "Ironclads in Action," himself an Englishman, has lately said:

It was France who led the way in the adoption of armor, whether for such harbor-service craft as the Kinburn batteries, or for the sea-going battle-ship in the shape of the *Gloire*. The lead that she obtained in 1858 she has on the whole maintained since, and there is no country where more ingenuity and audacity have been displayed in the designing of war-ships. . . . Considering the French fleet as a whole there is no doubt that it is a most formidable force.

This is valuable testimony to French naval efficiency. One of the chief differences between the English and the French armored ships to-day is in the disposition of the armor and the consequent design of the hull. English designers have striven to protect the men working the guns, and to do this they have reduced the length of the ship's armor. French naval architects, on the other hand, have given little attention to the protection of men and a great deal to the protection of the water line; therefore they have reduced the breadth of the ship's armor.

The present effective strength of the French Navy, excluding the ships now building or authorized to be built, is about as follows:

Standard battle-ships.	23	Unarmored cruisers.	38
Second-class " " " " " "	13	Torpedo gunboats.	13
Third-class " " " " " "	11	" " " " " " " " " " " "	8
Harbor-service iron-clads.	8	Sea-going torpedo boats.	47
Armored cruisers.	6	Smaller torpedo boats	187

Armored vessels. 61 Unarmored vessels. 293

And the total figures are: 444 vessels of 608,393 tons, mounting 3,172 guns and manned by 50,842 men. The French sailor serves no more than four or five years. The naval

estimate for 1895 was 277,516,311 francs (\$55,503,266).

The recruiting of sailors is by what is called "inscription maritime," established by Colbert in 1681, but somewhat changed since then. All fishermen and men employed on merchant ships must have their names inscribed in a special register, and be bound to give whenever required a minimum of three years' service. In 1873 this list numbered 151,830 names. There is also a special body of ordnance called *Artillerie de Marine*, with 243 officers and 4,216 men, which is stationed part in garrison and part in the colonies. The marines number 15,000 with 780 officers.

According to Professor Soley's valuable report on "Foreign Systems of Naval Education" the corps of line officers in the navy is recruited from four different sources: (1) aspirants or naval cadets graduated from the naval school at Brest; (2) aspirants chosen from among the graduates of the Polytechnic School at Paris; (3) first masters, corresponding in grade to our warrant officers, who are nominated for the grade of ensign after undergoing an examination; (4) auxiliary ensigns who have received the certificate of sea-captain in the merchant service, and who are admitted to the titular grade of ensign.

The grades in the corps of line officers are as follows: admiral; vice-admiral; rear-admiral; captain; commander (*capitaine de frégate*) lieutenant, first and second-class; ensign; midshipman (*aspirant 1^{re} classe*) cadet (*aspirant 2^{me} classe*). Merchant captains are appointed ensigns in case of need and correspond nearly to the English naval reserve.

The staff corps comprise the engineer mechanicians; engineer or construction corps, including the most accomplished men of science in the service; hydrographers;⁴ medical corps; professors at naval schools; pay corps; commissariat clerks; civil engineers; storekeepers; chaplains, etc. We have practically the same subdivisions in our own service.

The following establishments are included in the general system of education of the of-

ficers of the French Navy. The Polytechnic School furnishes a certain number of midshipmen (about four a year) to the line of the navy, and of assistant commissaries to the pay corps; and from it are derived two thirds of the officers of the marine artillery and all the pupils of the construction corps and hydrographers. The general instruction given by it in science and mathematics is supplemented by special and professional training in the schools of the selected corps. They are the following: the naval school at Brest, to which about 45 candidates are admitted every year as the result of competitive examinations (the course is two years and is followed by one year in the training school for line officers which is established on the practise ship); the engineers' training school at Cherbourg, founded originally at Paris in 1765; the medical schools at Brest, Rochefort, and Toulon; the torpedo school; the machinist's school at Toulon; the gunnery school for education in practical gunnery; the artillery school for the training of officers of the marine artillery.

While we have in many ways patterned our form of naval administration and education on the French and English systems, with such modifications as our experience has suggested, it is equally true that these nations have not hesitated to borrow liberally from us. The recent establishment in France, by the Department of the Marine, of a technical training college for officers of the navy is a practical acknowledgment of the merit and utility of the design of our own war college, to which it bears a close resemblance. In urging its establishment in 1896 the minister of marine said:

France possesses no institution where the science of tactics can be properly taught to officers who will be called upon to assume responsible commands at sea; it is necessary that such officers should, from the moment of their going on board ship, be so educated that they could immediately carry out suitable tactics in the presence of an enemy. . . . The school has been established to facilitate the investigation of problems inseparable from modern war and to make as large a number as possible of officers familiar with the duties and responsibilities of command.

These are also among the objects sought

to be attained by our own college, except that the scheme at the latter is somewhat broader in scope and more concerned with problems connected with the defense of our coast.

The following table from the *Nineteenth Century* shows the naval strength of various nations, as comprehensively as it is possible to do—anything like a satisfactory uniform classification of the various vessels of the respective fleets being extremely difficult :

	Battle-ships.	Cruisers.	Torpedo Craft.	Port Defense.
Great Britain.....	32	263	118	23
France.....	30	150	216	17
Spain.....	1	90	16	1
Russia.....	14	70	64	16
Italy.....	10	61	139	4
Holland.....		66	20	25
Germany.....	13	43	132	12
United States.....	5	47	17	19
Denmark.....	1	18	12	4

The French soldier to-day is better educated and better disciplined than he was twenty-five years ago. He was always brave but was too often rash, impetuous, and easily discouraged. He lacked the phlegmatic temperament that is cool in the hour of danger and rallies naturally and easily

from the bitterness of defeat. Nor was the army always well officered and prudently and wisely led. There was too much formalism, too much that we call "red tape" in methods of administration. There is still more of that than in any other service, but it is better controlled and directed. The French have been the first in many improvements in the art of war. They were the first to adopt a light, small-calibered rifle, the first to use smokeless powder, the first to develop nickel steel, and the first to armor their ships. So, too, they were the first to use the balloon in warfare and also—going to the other extreme—the first to make successful experiments with submarine boats. They are progressive, studious, and quick, but they are full of a nervous energy which is apt to soon wear out its possessor. Theoretically the French Army and Navy are to-day not only larger in numbers than ever before in the history of the nation but they are also in much better condition for actual warfare. What they may be in reality only the test of battle can prove.

SUNDAY READINGS.

SELECTED BY BISHOP VINCENT.

[February 7.]

AS our understandings are opened by the pure light, we experience that through an inward approaching to God the mind is strengthened in obedience, and that by gratifying those desires which are not of his begetting these approaches to him are obstructed and the deceivable spirit gains strength.

These truths being as it were engraven upon our hearts and our everlasting interest in Christ evidently concerned therein, we become fervently engaged that nothing may be nourished which tends to feed pride or self-love in us.

In this state the mind is tender and inwardly watchful that the love of gain draw us not into any business which may weaken our love to our heavenly Father or bring unnecessary trouble to any of his creatures.

Thus the way gradually opens to cease from that spirit which craves riches and things fetched far, which so mixes with the customs of this world and so intrudes upon the true harmony of life that the right medium of labor is very much departed from. As the minds of people are settled in a steady concern not to hold or possess anything but what may be held consistently with the wisdom which is from above, they consider what they possess as the gift of God and are inwardly exercised that in all parts of their conduct they may act agreeably to the nature of the peaceable government of Christ.

A little supports such a life; and in a state truly resigned to the Lord the eye is single to see what outward employ he leads into as a means of our subsistence, and a lively care is maintained to hold to that, without lanching further.

There is a harmony in the several parts of this divine work in the hearts of people; he who leads them to cease from those gainful employments, carried on in that wisdom which is from beneath, delivers also from the desire after worldly greatness and reconciles the mind to a life so plain that a little suffices.

Here the real comforts of life are not lessened. Food and raiment sufficient, though in the greatest simplicity, are accepted with contentment and gratitude.

The mutual love subsisting between the faithful followers of Christ is more pure than that friendship which is not seasoned with humility, how specious soever the appearance.

Where people depart from pure wisdom in one case it is often an introduction to depart from it in many more; and thus a spirit which seeks for outward greatness, and leads into worldly wisdom to attain it and support it, gets possession of the mind.

To wait for the direction of the divine light, in all temporal as well as spiritual concerns, appears necessary; for if in any case we enter lightly into temporal affairs, without feeling this spirit of truth to open our way therein, and through the love of this world proceed on and seek for gain by that business or traffic which "is not of the Father but of the world," we fail in our testimony to the purity and peace of his government and get into that which is for chastisement.

There is no probability of our being "a peculiar people, so zealous of good works as to have no fellowship with works of darkness," while we have wants to supply which have their foundation in custom and do not come within the meaning of those expressions "your heavenly Father knoweth that ye have need of all these things."

Those things which he beholds to be necessary for his people he fails not to give them in his own way and time; but as his ways are above our ways, his thoughts above our thoughts, so imaginary wants are different from those things which "he knoweth that we have need of."

How lamentably do they expose themselves to temptations who give way to the love of riches, conform to expensive living,

and reach forth for gain, to support customs which our holy Shepherd leads not into.

[February 14.]

THOSE who are in circumstances which appear difficult, with respect to supporting their families in a way answerable to pure wisdom, ought not to be discouraged but remember that in humbly obeying the leading of Christ he owneth us as his friends: "Ye are my friends if ye do whatsoever I command you," and to be a friend to Christ is to be united to him who has all power in heaven and in earth, and though a woman may forget her suckling child yet will he not forget his faithful ones.

The condition of many who dwell in cities has often affected me with a brotherly sympathy, attended with a desire that resignation may be labored for; and where the holy Leader directeth to a country life or some change of employ he may be faithfully followed; for under the refining hand of the Lord I have seen that the inhabitants of some cities are greatly increased through some branches of business which his Holy Spirit doth not lead into and that, being entangled in these things, tends to bring a cloud over the minds of people convinced of the leadings of this holy Leader and obstructs the coming of the kingdom of Christ on earth as it is in heaven.

If we indulge a desire to imitate our neighbors in those things which harmonize not with the true Christian walking these entanglements may hold fast to us, and some who in an awakening time feel tender scruples with respect to their manner of life may look on the example of others more noted in the church, who yet may not be refined from every degree of dross—and by looking on these examples and desiring to support their families in a way pleasant to the natural mind there may be danger of the worldly wisdom gaining strength in them and of their departing from that pure feeling of truth which if faithfully attended to would teach contentment in the divine will, even in a very low estate.

"It is not enough," says Tertullian, "that a Christian be chaste and modest, but he

must *appear* to be so: a virtue of which he should have so great a store that it should flow from his mind upon his habit and break from the retirements of his conscience into the superficies of his life."

Though the change from day to night is by a motion so gradual as scarcely to be perceived, yet when night is come we behold it very different from the day; and thus as people become wise in their own eyes and prudent in their own sight customs rise up from the spirit of this world and spread by little and little until a departure from the simplicity that there is in Christ becomes as distinguishable as light from darkness, to such as are crucified to the world.

Our holy Shepherd to encourage his flock in firmness and perseverance reminds them of his love for them: "As the Father hath loved me so have I loved you; continue ye in my love;" and in another place he graciously points out the danger of departing therefrom by going into unsuitable employments. 'This he represents in the similitude of offense from that useful active member the hand; and to fix the instruction the deeper he names the right hand: "If thy right hand offend thee cut it off and cast it from thee." If thou feelest offense in thy employment humbly follow him who leads into all truth, and is a strong and faithful friend to those who are resigned to him.

Again he points out those things which appearing pleasant to the natural mind are not best for us, in the similitude of offense from the eye: "If thy right eye offend thee pluck it out and cast it from thee." To pluck out the eye or cut off the hand is attended with sharp pain; and how precious is the instruction which our Redeemer thus opens to us, that we may not faint under the most painful trials, but put our trust in him, even in him who sent an angel to feed Elijah in the wilderness, who fed a multitude with a few barley loaves, and is now as attentive to the wants of his people as ever.

[February 21.]

THE prophet Isaiah represents the unrighteous doings of the Israelites toward the

poor as the fruits of an effeminate life: "As for my people, children are their oppressors and women rule over them; what mean ye that ye beat my people to pieces and grind the faces of the poor, saith the Lord God." Then he mentions the haughtiness of the daughters of Zion, and enumerates many ornaments as instances of their vanity, to uphold which the poor were so hardly dealt with that he sets forth their poverty, their leanness and inability to help themselves, in the similitude of a man maimed by violence or "beaten to pieces" and forced to endure the painful operation of having his face gradually worn away in the manner of grinding.

I have beheld how the desire to provide wealth and to uphold a delicate life hath grievously entangled many, and been like snares to their offspring; and though some have been affected with a sense of their difficulties, and appeared desirous at times to be helped out of them, yet for want of abiding under the humbling power of truth they have continued in these entanglements; for in remaining conformable to this world and giving way to a delicate life this expensive way of living, in parents and in children, hath called for a large supply, and in answering this call "the faces of the poor" have been ground away and made thin through hard dealing.

There is a balm, there is a physician; and oh what longings do I feel that we may embrace the means appointed for our healing, know that to be removed which now ministers cause for the cries of many people to ascend to heaven against their oppressors, and that we may see the true harmony restored!

"Behold how good and how pleasant it is for brethren to dwell together in unity." The nature of this unity is thus opened by the apostle: "If we walk in the light, as he [God] is in the light, we shall have fellowship one with another, and the blood of Jesus Christ, his Son, cleanseth us from all sin."

The land may be polluted with innocent blood, which like the blood of Abel may cry to the Almighty; but those who "walk

in the light as Christ is in the light," they know the "Lamb of God, who taketh away the sin of the world."

Walking is a phrase frequently used in Scripture to represent our journey through life, and appears to comprehend the various affairs and transactions properly relating to our being in this world.

Christ being the light dwells always in the light; and if our walking be thus, and in every affair and concern we faithfully follow this divine Leader, he preserves from giving just cause for any to quarrel with us; and where this foundation is laid and mutually kept to, by families conversant with each other, the way is open for those comforts in society which our heavenly Father intends as a part of our happiness in this world and we may experience the goodness and pleasantness of dwelling together in unity. But where ways of living take place which tend to oppression, and in the pursuit of wealth people do that to others which they know would not be acceptable to themselves, either in exercising an absolute power over them or otherwise laying on them inequitable burdens, here a fear lest that measure should be meted to them which they have measured to others incites a care to support that by craft and cunning devices which stands not on the firm foundation of righteousness; thus the harmony of society is broken and from hence commotions and wars do frequently arise in the world.

[February 28.]

"COME out of Babylon, my people, that ye be not partakers of her sins and that ye receive not of her plagues." This Babel, or Babylon, was built in the spirit of self-exaltation: "Let us build us a city and a tower, whose top may reach to heaven, and let us make us a name." In departing from an humble trust in God, and in following a selfish spirit, people have intentions to get the upper hand of their fellow-creatures, privately meditate on means to obtain their ends, and have a language in their hearts which is hard to understand. In Babel the language is confounded.

This city is represented as a place of business and those employed in it as merchants of the earth: "The merchants of the earth are waxed rich through the abundance of her delicacies."

It is remarkable in this call that the language from the Father of Mercies is, "*my people*"—"Come out of Babylon, *my people*." Thus tender his mercies are toward us in an imperfect state; and as we faithfully attend to the call the path of righteousness is more and more opened; cravings which have not their foundation in pure wisdom more and more cease; and in an inward purity of heart we experience a restoration of that which was lost at Babel, represented by the inspired prophet in the "returning of a pure language."

Happy for those who humbly attend to the call, "Come out of Babylon, my people." For though in going forth we may meet with trials, which for a time may be painful, yet as we bow in true humility and continue in it an evidence is felt that God only is wise; and that in weaning us from all that is selfish he prepares the way to a quiet habitation where all our desires are bounded by his wisdom. An exercise of spirit attends me, that we who are convinced of the pure leadings of truth may bow in the deepest reverence, and so watchfully regard this leader that many who are grievously entangled in a wilderness of vain customs may look upon us and be instructed. And oh that such who have plenty of this world's goods may be faithful in that with which they are entrusted, and example others in the true Christian walking.

Our blessed Savior speaking on worldly greatness compares himself to one waiting and attending on a company at dinner: "Whether is greater, he that sitteth at meat or he that serveth? Is not he that sitteth at meat? but I am among you as he that serveth."

Thus in a world greatly disordered, where men aspiring to outward greatness are wont to oppress others to support their designs, he who was of the highest descent, being the Son of God, and greater than any among the greatest families of men, by

his example and doctrines foreclosed his followers from claiming any show of outward greatness and from any supposed superiority in themselves or derived from their ancestors.

He who was greater than earthly princes was not only meek and lowly of heart but his outward appearance was plain and lowly and free from every stain of the spirit of this world.

Such was the example of our blessed Redeemer, of whom the beloved disciple said, "He that saith he abideth in him ought himself also so to walk even as he walked."

This mind being in us which was in Christ Jesus, it removes from our hearts the desire of superiority, worldly honor, or greatness; a deep attention is felt to the divine counsellor and an ardent engagement to promote as far as we may be

enabled the happiness of mankind universally. This state, where every motion from a selfish spirit yieldeth to pure love, I may with gratitude to the Father of Mercies acknowledge, is often opened before me as a pearl to dig after; attended with a living concern that among the many nations and families on the earth those who believe in the Messiah, that "he was manifested to destroy the works of the Devil" and thus to "take away the sins of the world," may experience the will of our heavenly Father, "to be done on earth as it is in heaven." Strong are the desires I often feel that this holy profession may remain unpolluted and that the believers in Christ may so abide in the pure inward feeling of his Spirit that the wisdom from above may shine forth in their living, as a light by which others may be instrumentally helped on their way, in the true harmonious walking.

LOUIS XIV. AND HIS TIME.

BY RICHARD HUDSON, A.M.

PROFESSOR OF HISTORY IN THE UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN.

WHEN Louis XIII. died, on the 14th of May, 1643, his son and successor, Louis XIV., was but four and a half years of age. It was not until the death of Mazarin in 1661 that what we may call the personal rule of the king began. At a meeting of the Council held immediately upon the death of Mazarin the king announced his purpose to take the reins into his own hands. "I have been well pleased," he said, "to leave my affairs in the hands of the late cardinal; it is time that I should manage them myself. You will aid me with your counsels when I ask for them." Then he directed the chancellor to put the seal of the kingdom to nothing without his orders and instructed the secretaries of state not to sign anything, even a safety warrant or passport, without his command and to report every day to him personally. To the Portuguese ambassador who spoke of his ministers he said, "I have no ministers; you mean to say my men of business."

In his memoirs the king expresses himself in regard to the relations between himself and his ministers as follows:

I resolved from the first not to have any premier minister and not to leave to another the functions of king while I had nothing but the title. But on the contrary I made up my mind to distribute the execution of my orders among several persons, in order to concentrate their authority in myself alone. I might have cast my eyes upon people of higher consideration than those I selected, but they seemed to me competent to execute under me the matters with which I purposed to intrust them. I did not think it was for my interest to look for men of higher standing, because as I wanted above all things to establish my own reputation it was important that the public should know, from the rank of those of whom I made use, that I had no intention of sharing my authority with them, and that they themselves, knowing what they were, should not conceive higher hopes than I wished to give them.

Such language finds its explanation not wholly or indeed mainly in the character of the new monarch, but rather in the causes

which had been for centuries undermining the old political order and preparing the way for absolute monarchy. The history of France during the Middle Ages is the history of the transfer of authority from the great feudatories to the crown. When William, duke of Normandy, became king of England the feudatories in France were everything, the king nothing. By the time of Louis XIV. the nobles had become courtiers and the king could say, "*L'état c'est moi.*"

It may at first sight seem paradoxical to find in the early weakness of the monarchy the explanation of its subsequent strength. In England the strong government of the Norman kings made it necessary for the nobles in their struggle against the crown to seek the support of the nation, and this union of classes led to the establishment of limited monarchy. In France, however, where feudalism had been carried much further than in England the people welcomed the growth of the royal authority at the expense of the seigniors as a means of their emancipation from a hated thralldom. This struggle between the crown and the nobles had just been brought to an end when Louis XIV. came to the throne. Indeed it was Richelieu, whose death occurred but a few months before that of Louis XIII., who gave to the political power of the nobles the finishing blow. The fantastical revolt of the Fronde under Mazarin showed how complete had been the victory of the monarchy.

The mere statement, however, that the French kings had become absolute does not suffice to bring the situation vividly before the mind. In England Parliament had become a firmly established institution whose consent was recognized as necessary to the enactment of laws and the imposition of taxes. But the strength of the English Parliament evidently came from the union of the classes, which, as we have seen, was lacking in France. There the States-General were summoned only intermittently and on critical occasions. After 1614 they were not again convened until on the eve of the French Revolution.

The only check upon the royal power of making laws and imposing taxes was a sort of indirect veto claimed by the Parliament of Paris. The Parliament was a judicial body and among its duties was that of registering the royal decrees. This duty it had partly succeeded in converting into a right but the king could overcome the resistance of the Parliament by personally commanding registration in what was known as a "bed of justice." During the present reign, however, no resistance was to be feared from this quarter, for the nobility of the robe as well as the old nobility had been humbled in the war of the Fronde. Even local rights had not been able to withstand the encroachments of the royal authority. Local diets or estates survived only in the *pays d'état*, as the provinces of more recent incorporation were called, while over a large part of France majors were named by the central government.

The political change which we have been studying has for its counterpart a social transformation. The court of the absolute monarch became necessarily the social center toward which everything that was bright or witty or attractive in France was naturally drawn. It is difficult for us to form any adequate idea of how powerful was the attraction which the court exercised. What preferments, pensions, favors were here to be had for the asking! Away from Versailles life seemed narrow, provincial, monotonous. Of this splendid and polished society Taine draws a vivid picture in his "*L'Ancien Régime*":

With the hair powdered and dressed, with buckles and knots, with cravats and ruffles of lace on silk coats and vests of the hues of fallen leaves, or of a delicate rose tint, or of celestial blue, embellished with gold braid and embroidery, the men are as elegant as the women. Men and women, each is a selection; they are all of the accomplished class, gifted with every grace which race, education, fortune, leisure, and custom can bestow; they are perfect of their kind. There is not a toilet here, an air of the head, tone of the voice, an expression in language which is not a masterpiece of worldly culture, the distilled quintessence of all that is exquisitely elaborated by social art.

"Whoever," says La Bruyère, "considers

that the king's countenance is the courtier's supreme felicity, that he passes his life looking on it and within sight of it, will comprehend to some extent how to see God constitutes the glory and happiness of the saints." It is difficult to recognize in these obsequious courtiers the descendants of the turbulent vassals of former reigns.

For the lofty place to which birth had called him Louis XIV. possessed striking qualifications. He was indeed far from being a man of first-rate abilities and he showed little of the originality and productiveness which mark the statesman. But he was a master of details and he devoted himself to public affairs with the most scrupulous and tireless attention. A noble presence, dignified bearing, engaging manners, ready tact, are important qualities in a king who stood at the head of the most polished society in Europe.

No event of the reign of Louis XIV. is more important than the choice which he made between two lines of policy represented respectively by Colbert and Louvois, the former preeminent in civil and the latter in military administration. Appointed minister of finance in 1661, Colbert had at once abolished the most crying abuses and introduced order into the financial administration. With the object of developing the resources of the nation and of making it economically as well as politically independent Colbert levied protective duties, under the stimulus of which French silk, tapestries, lace, and glass became widely known. The custom-houses upon the boundaries of provinces, which greatly hampered domestic trade, Colbert succeeded in abolishing throughout about three fourths of the kingdom. The canal which he constructed to connect the Atlantic with the Mediterranean evinces the interest that he took in improving methods of communication. He sought to open up trade with remote countries by fostering colonization, and as a protection to commerce he strengthened the navy.

It is easy for us who live after the event to see how full of promise was the course upon which the king had entered under the

guidance of Colbert. The results that had been attained in a single decade in the reduction of the debt, the lightening of taxation, and the growth of prosperity were highly significant. Reforms along the lines that have been indicated would have averted the Revolution by removing the shackles and inequalities which were to bring on that catastrophe. If peace had been maintained France, with the advantages at that time largely on her side, might have gained the commercial and colonial supremacy which England was successfully to dispute with her.

Unfortunately, Louis XIV. listened to the counsels of Louvois, which corresponded only too well with his own desires. Describing his state of mind at this period the king says :

The resolutions I had in my mind seemed to me very worthy of execution ; my natural activity, the ardor of my age, and the violent desire I felt to augment my reputation made me very impatient to be up and doing. But I found at this moment that love of glory has the same niceties and, if I may say so, the same timidities as the more tender passions, for the more ardent I was to distinguish myself the more apprehensive I was of failing ; and, regarding as a great misfortune the shame which follows the slightest errors, I intended in my conduct to take the most extreme precautions.

It would be easy, however, to attach too much importance to the king's desire for glory. The traditions of France pointed toward military supremacy and its traditional rival was the house of Hapsburg. During the present reign a prolonged war had been brought to an end which had gained for France most important territorial acquisitions. When we remember how in more recent times various French governments have fixed covetous eyes on Belgium we need not be surprised that Louis XIV. attached so much importance to its possession. With a large and well-equipped army, with generals whose names were household words, with a young and ambitious monarch, and with national traditions impelling toward war, it would have been strange if peace had been maintained.

The first of the aggressive wars of Louis XIV., known as the War of Devolution,

was begun in 1667. Philip IV. of Spain had died in 1665 and had been succeeded by Philip V., his son by a second marriage. Of his two daughters by his first marriage the elder was the wife of Louis XIV. There prevailed in Brabant a local custom according to which upon the death of the father his landed property devolved upon his daughters by a first marriage to the exclusion of sons by a second marriage. This custom, which had nothing whatever to do with the succession to the throne, was made the basis of a claim that the Spanish Netherlands devolved upon the daughter of Philip IV. to the exclusion of Philip V. The country that was most menaced by this invasion of the Spanish Netherlands was Holland, whose inhabitants had no desire to have France for a neighbor, knowing full well that their own turn would come next. They accordingly concluded with England and Sweden the Triple Alliance, the conclusion of which compelled Louis to desist from his attack on Spain, not, however, without carrying away substantial booty.

In 1672 Louis began war against the Dutch to avenge the insult they had offered him in taking precautions for their own safety. The success of his diplomacy may have led him to believe that the Dutch would be left without allies. But he can scarcely have closed his eyes altogether to the danger that other powers might regard the overthrow of Holland as a menace to the existing political order, and might pay no attention to treaties when it became clear that their observance would mean the supremacy of France over Europe. A monarch who brooks no opposition at home is in danger of disregarding the rights of other states and of underestimating the resistance which his aggression is likely to provoke. But even when we make full allowance for the fact that Charles II. of England was bound to him hand and foot, that many of the German princes were his allies, and that even the Empire had promised not to assist the enemies of France, we can scarcely avoid the inference that Louis XIV., whose will in France no

one ventured to dispute, had determined, in case of need, to impose his will upon Europe by force of arms.

At first Louis carried everything before him and Amsterdam was saved only by cutting the dikes and flooding the adjacent fields; but soon the coalition which he might have foreseen sprang into arms against him and the attack upon Holland widened into a great European struggle which lasted until the conclusion of the peace of Nimwegen in 1678. There is room for question whether with the signature of this treaty the power of the king had reached or had passed its zenith. France had brilliantly withstood a European coalition and had enlarged its boundaries by the acquisition of Franche-Comté. But Holland was saved and Louis had not imposed his will upon Europe.

The encroachments of Louis on the rights of his neighbors did not cease with the conclusion of peace. He established Chambers of Reunion which decided, sometimes on the flimsiest of pretexts, that certain territories rightfully belonged to provinces recently ceded to France, whereupon these territories were unceremoniously reunited, in most flagrant violation of the rights of the German princes to whom they belonged. In the midst of profound peace Louis, taking advantage of ambiguous clauses in the treaty of Westphalia, sent an army against Strasburg and took possession of a fortress which was justly regarded as one of the bulwarks of Germany. Upon the death of the elector palatine¹ Louis brought forward claims in behalf of his sister-in-law, but against her wish, which were shortly to serve as a pretext for the invasion of that territory.

Meantime the emperor, many of the German princes, and the rulers of Spain, Holland, and Sweden had formed the League of Augsburg, and both sides were making preparations for war, when Louis ordered the invasion of the Palatinate.²

The march of the French Army toward the Palatinate was followed by an event of the first importance. William of Orange had been deterred from accepting the

overtures of the discontented party in England only by the danger of French invasion. When that danger was over he crossed the channel to receive the English crown. In this way England, which under the Stuarts had been subservient to Louis, took its natural place at the head of a hostile coalition. The formation of this coalition compelled the withdrawal of the French Army from its advanced position in the Palatinate, and as the troops withdrew they laid waste the country, leaving in their wake burning cities and villages.

By the treaty of Ryswick, concluded in 1698, France, exhausted by the terrible strain of eight years of war, surrendered all the places it had seized since the peace of Nimwegen except Strasburg, consented that Dutch troops should garrison the chief border fortresses of the Spanish Netherlands to protect the country against France, and acknowledged William king of England.

The last war of the king's reign, the War of the Spanish Succession, covered the period between 1702 and 1713. Europe might have acquiesced in the breach of faith by which Louis XIV. set aside the treaties of partition which he himself had signed, and accepted the will of Charles II. bequeathing the whole Spanish inheritance to his great-grandson, the duke of Anjou, had not the king by expelling the Dutch garrisons from the fortresses of the Spanish Netherlands, and by recognizing on the death of James II. the Pretender as king of England fanned the war spirit into a flame.

It was by these arrogant violations of the

treaty of Ryswick that the king plunged France into a war which brought upon it untold misery and utter exhaustion, and which might have involved the deepest humiliation had not the death of the Austrian claimant, the Archduke Charles, and the accession of the Tories to power in England made the English government ready to conclude peace on terms which the allies had not been willing to consider.

Nothing shows more clearly how absolute monarchy discourages spontaneity and reduces everything to a dead level of uniformity than the measures adopted by Louis XIV. against the Huguenots. The king seems to have taken it amiss that any class of his subjects should differ from him in opinion. Surrounded by servile courtiers, he could form no idea of the tenacity with which the Huguenots would cling to their convictions. Indeed the success of the milder measures which were first tried strengthened the impression that resistance would cease when the will of the king was clearly made known. At length, in October of 1685, an edict was issued which revoked the privileges accorded to the Huguenots by the Edict of Nantes, suppressed their worship, and exiled their ministers.

The revocation of the Edict of Nantes, which was applauded by the courtiers and the clergy as an act that would forever shed luster on the name of the great monarch, is estimated to have cost the country 200,000 of her most industrious citizens, whose skill and thrift were to enrich the rivals of France.

THE COMMERCIAL GEOGRAPHY OF EUROPE.

BY CYRUS C. ADAMS.

I.

NO young man can ever become a great merchant unless he knows where his commodities are to be found, the conditions under which they are produced, the ease or difficulty of bringing them to market, and their fitness to satisfy the needs and demands of his customers.

We need only read our consular reports to be convinced that geography is really the basis of commerce. Our consuls are constantly telling American merchants that they hold a subordinate place in the trade of most of the Latin-American republics, for instance, because they do not study those countries as German and English

traders do; because they are ignorant of these various regions and their resources, of the people and their peculiar ways and tastes, of their languages and their special wants.

The English consuls too are sending up a note of alarm, for the foreign trade of Germany is making wonderful strides and in some directions is outstripping Great Britain; and almost the only reason assigned for this is that in all their commercial schools the Germans, thorough students that they are, are making a scientific study of all the regions into which they are trying to push their trade. The dependence of commerce upon geography is so fully recognized that there are now many societies, particularly in Germany and France, calling themselves Societies of Commercial Geography, whose sole purpose is to study commerce in its geographical aspects. It is the purpose here to illustrate to some extent this dependence of commerce upon geography as applied to Europe, the greatest commercial region of the world.

How profoundly is commerce affected by geographical discovery! For 2,000 years the land-locked sea between Europe and Africa was Europe's great highway of trade. The Phenicians were at that time the most adventuresome seamen and enterprising traders, their boats skirting every shore and inlet of the Mediterranean; and later, Venice rose out of the lagoons near the head of the Adriatic and her people became the great carriers and distributors of their time. In the fourteenth century Venice was the home port for 3,000 merchant vessels. It was a fortunate thing for the little British Isles when the western world was revealed, four centuries ago, and the Atlantic instead of the Mediterranean became the highway of trade; and it needed only Da Gama's voyages to India by the new-found route around the Cape of Good Hope to complete at last the commercial decadence of the Mediterranean. Every port on the long coasts of that inland sea languished for centuries, until the Suez Canal made Africa an island and opened a far shorter route to the Orient. The

Mediterranean has again become an important highway and Marseilles, Genoa, and many other ports have felt the impulse and once more are important commercial factors.

Explorers have simply brought to us a practical knowledge of the world's geography; but some nations have not known how to turn this knowledge to good account, and that is the reason why Spain and Portugal, preeminent in geographical discovery as they were, fell hopelessly in the rear of their sister countries which had more wisdom, enterprise, and commercial spirit. Bad management or legislation may offset the greatest commercial advantages, impoverish a people, or keep a nation poor. Observe how Spain let every opportunity slip from her grasp after she had become owner of half the New World with all its manifold forms of wealth. When the settlers in the Americas began to make large demands for woollen cloths and leather goods the people of Spain complained that this export trade raised the price of commodities at home, whereupon Philip II., instead of stimulating these manufactures so that there should be enough both for home and foreign use, prohibited their export entirely and it was Genoa and the Netherlands instead of Spanish merchants that came to the aid of Spanish colonists. Throughout the list of Spanish industries every stupid thing was done to favor foreign competition until Spain was nearly turned into a desert while other nations were growing stronger through their colonial trade.

See also the bad effects upon Ireland of a vicious system. The island has a fine climate, a very fertile soil, abundant food-products, and a strong and intellectual populace. But English landlords own most of the soil and for many generations they terribly oppressed the tenantry; and even to-day so large a part of the fruits of Irish industry are drained away to England to pay rents on Irish land that there is scarcely enough left to fill the mouths of the people and practically no accumulation of capital to develop home industries and create a foreign trade; thus, under the

most favorable geographical and other conditions, it is easy enough for man himself to stifle prosperity and commercial growth.

That part of the Euro-Asian continent which we call Europe is nearly a third larger than the United States, exclusive of Alaska. The first great factor that has made it commercially preeminent is the fact that it lies entirely in the temperate zone except along a part of its northern fringe. Being so far north it would be impossible to carry on great human activity if Europe were as high above the sea as Central Asia is. It is found that even in Southern Europe, among the mountains of northern Italy and Switzerland, man cannot work and live above a certain moderate altitude. But Europe has a mean elevation above the sea of only 1,000 feet, half that of Africa, while most of its people live considerably below that level, so that the combined effect of latitude and altitude is favorable to the development of strong, energetic, industrious men and women. The climate of much of Europe compels the people to work hard, day by day, to earn a livelihood, and this is a blessed necessity.

Another very important element is the fact that nearly the whole of Europe has sufficient rainfall for cultivation, the deficiency in this respect being confined chiefly to the southeast of Russia and the great inner plateau of Spain. No other part of the world of the same extent is better or more equably supplied with the moisture needed by growing crops. It is found too that in certain regions and for certain purposes the prevailing large amount of atmospheric humidity is a special advantage. Here is a noteworthy instance.

Wool-growing is a very large industry in Australia. The people of Victoria have not fancied the idea of growing the wool and then sending it to England to be returned in the form of cloth. Why should they not make their own cloth and stop importing so largely from the mother country? So they have been trying to manufacture cloth themselves and have made an unpleasant discovery. Owing to the dry-

ness of their climate they have not yet succeeded in making wool yarn that at all compares with that made in Yorkshire. In the various wool-manufacturing centers of England the air supplies the moisture needed to produce the best yarn, but this requisite is not found in the Australian air. Perhaps some means will be found of overcoming this difficulty, but as yet Australia is importing most of her woollens from England, paying British operatives to work up their raw material. The Lancashire cotton spinners assert, also, that the moisture in the air enables them to turn out the best cotton yarn in the world, but it is believed that American manufacturers have no reason to concede them this superiority.

Great Britain is by far the largest commercial center in the world. We often hear this said but we hardly realize the enormous part these little islands play in the total ocean commerce. Just a little over one half of all the tonnage afloat on the salt seas flies the British flag. The United Kingdom owns one third of all the ocean-sailing vessels in the world and two thirds of all the steamers. What are the main geographical facts besides those already mentioned upon which mainly depend the commercial preeminence of England and other leading countries of Europe?

If our neighbor the grocer gives us just as good advantages as his rival in business a mile away he is pretty apt to get our trade. Other things being equal, every nation is likely to trade most with the countries that are nearest to it. All the great trading states of Europe have the advantage of being nearer to vast masses of buying and selling, highly civilized people than any centers of civilization in other parts of the world. Europe is the most densely peopled of civilized lands simply because modern progress has been advancing there for a far longer period than anywhere else and because, within the past century, great mechanical inventions have turned much of Europe into a vast manufactory where thousands of people may live in an area that formerly would support only hundreds.

The best foreign customer of any European state is Europe itself. We have scarcely

appreciated this fact. We have heard much of the vast shipping interests of Liverpool, Glasgow, and other west-coast ports of Great Britain. The fact is that a very large part of Great Britain's exports emerge from the east-side ports of Newcastle, Hull, and others, with London, of course, at the head, and the chief reason for this is that the east-side ports are nearer to the Continent than Liverpool and Glasgow.

When Mr. Chisholm compiled his comparative statistics the total trade of England with Germany and France was just about equal to its trade with the United States, to say nothing of its large commercial relations with other continental countries. A third of Germany's commerce is carried on with the states immediately adjoining it. The greater part of Belgium's foreign trade of \$500,000,000 annually is carried on with England, France, and Germany. Most of Italy's export trade is with France and Austria-Hungary. Three fourths of Denmark's imports come from Germany, England, and Sweden and nearly all her exports go to those countries. More than half of Austria's trade is with Germany and three fifths of Spain's commerce is with France and Great Britain. Thus we see that the geographical element of proximity is very influential in the commercial activity of Europe.

Another factor which helps to account for Europe's present preeminence in commerce is the relations of her land to her water, which is of the greatest commercial import. See how monotonously regular is the coast-line of Africa, where few good anchorages and fewer harbors are to be found. The broken outlines of the other continents give them a great advantage over Africa in point of commerce; and Europe, penetrated deeply by great arms of the sea, with estuaries, fiords, bays, and gulfs everywhere in view along the coasts, some of them giving access to the heart of the continent, has far greater harborage facilities for the same extent of coast-line than any other part of the civilized world. Scores of these doors open out upon the seas inviting the shipping of the world to enter.

The tendency for years past has been to

increase the size of ocean vessels and it is one of the advantages of the British Isles that they have over twenty seaports with a depth of twenty-five feet or more at high water and most of them near the great manufacturing centers. Any laborer in mid-England may go to the sea for an outing and return, on one of the summer excursions, at a cost of a dollar or so. Such proximity to the sea, among the hardier races, breeds sailors. It was this that stimulated the sea-faring propensity ages ago which has grown ever stronger in the little island, and England is still the greatest carrier of the world.

Many naturally good harbors along the coasts have been greatly improved at large expense and some roadsteads, like that in front of Cherbourg, have been turned into capacious harbors by building long breakwaters of solid masonry that are among the great monuments of engineering skill; and while the leading countries are constantly spending more money to increase the accommodations and the utility of their harbors they have achieved a colossal work in the way of road making, railroad building, canal digging, and improving river navigation, all with the view of bringing their remotest districts as near to the sea as possible. Glasgow did not become the city she is until many sand-bars and ledges had been removed from the Clyde and it had been deepened to twenty-two feet.

The British wagon roads are the best in the world and 2,500 miles of canals connect various rivers and important centers like Glasgow and Edinburgh. So we see a network of canals everywhere. The five large rivers of Germany, from the Vistula to the Rhine, all more or less navigable, are joined by canals forming a large system of internal waterways, and the canal from the Rhine to the Danube affords an unbroken water route from the North to the Black Seas. Nearly a hundred rivers in France are navigable to a greater or less extent and they are supplemented by a network of canals joining the chief industrial centers and connecting with the canal systems of Belgium, Germany, and the Netherlands. The depth of the river

Seine, naturally only two feet, has been increased to ten feet.

That remarkable little country Belgium has over 1,000 miles of canals and much of the country is so flat that even the first-class wagon roads compete with the railroads, for instance between Antwerp and Liege, seventy-two miles, where a considerable part of the freight traffic is conducted by wagons. Holland is a network of canals and the river Maas, once only five feet deep has been improved so that the largest vessels may ascend to Rotterdam. In all these countries the water routes have been supplemented by extensive railroad building, but in Russia only trunk lines have been built, the country depending largely upon its sluggish rivers, which are usually navigable and which afford, with the canals, a vast system of internal communication. One may travel by the rivers and canals from the interior of Russia to Paris and the Atlantic. St. Petersburg is joined to all the large rivers of the empire by canals.

Spain's rivers are not navigable and she has few canals, depending upon wagon roads and railroads and sharing with the Balkans and Turkey the distinction of being the only parts of Europe that are not adequately provided with means of internal communication. New enterprises on a large scale, like the Manchester Ship and the North Sea Canals, have recently been completed and other vast projects for improving Europe's wonderful system of internal and coast communications are under way. Thus Europe has prepared all her highways with a view to transacting a very large business.

While the Continent enjoys great natural advantages for developing agriculture, manufactures, and commerce most of the nations have shown great ingenuity and pertinacity in their efforts to overcome such adverse conditions as may exist. How the Dutch have had to struggle with their peculiar geographical conditions! for, as Mr. Keltie says, they live on a river delta that has been prematurely peopled. But their constant warfare with the ocean, which is ever striving to dominate, has cultivated in them habits that have made them the most

prosperous and most contented people in Europe.

The Norwegians have been compelled by their geographical environment to take to the sea. Their country is poor, fish and timber are about their only exports, and with fiords eating far into their mountains and a maze of channels and islands leaving them rather more water than land they could do nothing else than become a race of sailors. So we see these Norsemen ranking next to Great Britain in the extent of their mercantile marine. They have little of their own to carry, their trade being only about a fifteenth of that of the Netherlands, and so they have become carriers for the rest of the world.

The great plains of northern Germany are not naturally fertile except in the Rhine valley, but the Germans have learned to cultivate the soil with the utmost skill and are rewarded with bounteous crops. Spain is in striking contrast with most of the other nations, for though her lofty and semi-arid plateau places her in some respects at a disadvantage she still has a large area of fine agricultural lands and very rich mineral deposits. But she practically has no commerce in manufactured articles except wine, for, though she turns cotton and wool into cloth she does not produce enough for export; and thus, with a seacoast of nearly 2,000 miles, she cuts no figure in international commerce.

Europe's trade relations with the rest of the world have been long and intimately maintained and this fact has profoundly influenced her own material conditions of life. Much of the flora of Southern Europe has been derived from various Asiatic countries and many cultivated trees and plants are known to have been introduced within historic times. Since America was discovered potatoes have become a large food resource and our Indian corn is spreading more and more widely. American woods, like logwood and mahogany, and other useful or decorative timbers and ornamental plants for the house or garden have been widely introduced and have had some effect upon European ways of life. American cotton gives clothing to whole nations of Europe

and provides a living for many thousands of people. Our wheat, wool, meat, and fish help to prevent high prices and scarcity of food in Europe and our production of the precious metals and petroleum have a most potent influence upon the markets of Europe. We mention just a few of these things to show how deeply the Continent has been influenced by the distribution of the bounties of nature coming from afar; and in another article we shall try to trace the more intimate effect upon the people of the distribution among them of their own natural blessings and impediments.

THE GOLDSMITH'S TRADE AND ITS RELATION TO WEALTH.

BY PAUL GAULTIER.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE FRENCH "REVUE BLEUE."

THE precious metals seem to have been known and used even before, as Lucretius said, the conflagration of forests had put men in possession of the secrets of smelting. I am inclined to believe, however, that during the golden age the metal which by a bitter irony gave its name to that happy period was entirely unknown. If it had been known it surely would not have been slow, through the greed which it excites, in introducing discord where there was peace. At any rate gold and silver were no sooner discovered than they were set to work.

With their marvelous brilliancy they possessed an extreme malleability, qualities that were utilized without delay. These two metals in the form of badges and bracelets served as decoration for people of those remote times, and then their scarcity, by increasing their value, made the desire for them very lively. Their value became so great that they served as the symbol of wealth, and under the form of money facilitated business. From that time these metals took a preponderating position.

Their acquisition was considered as the supreme end of all economic life, and the stock that was possessed of them was the measure of wealth of nations as well as of individuals. The different countries strove by all possible means, and especially by legal regulations, not only to retain but also to draw to themselves these precious metals. The manufacture of money was not the only use that was made of them. The taste for luxury, as strong as the taste for wealth,

joined with the latter in assigning other uses to them, since by being transformed into fine tableware they lost none of their value. On the contrary, when wrought into vessels of domestic use they made visible the fortune of their owners; and thus with the help of vanity they served for the manufacture of a multitude of objects—adornments, household utensils, and even armor.

The profession of the goldsmith, therefore, goes back to the farthest antiquity; and to prove it we have Egyptian jewels of astonishing perfection. It is a privileged occupation, since wealth itself is employed in it to make it a work of art. But it is submitted to severe laws as a compensation for its privileges. It pays the penalty of its great splendor, since in order to work up a rich material the skill of the goldsmith is subordinate to it, subject to its fluctuations, and condemned to a fatal destruction. The work of the goldsmith did not enjoy the permanency which would have been bestowed upon it if, being more modest, it had owed its value only to itself and not to the material out of which it was wrought. The beautiful yields to the useful, and too often the history of the goldsmith's trade gives us the spectacle of a struggle between art and economic laws.

Until the fifteenth century the chief value of a piece of goldsmith's work was its intrinsic value. The weight of the metal used fixed the price of it. As to the model, it was considered secondary, and the workmanship was held of insignificant value.

Those magnificent vessels, boats, tankards, and ewers of gold that people were fond of displaying upon massive dressers were estimated only by their weight, and the art of the workmanship hardly entered into their valuation. The laws of goldsmiths' corporations are the best proof of this, for they can be explained by this fact alone. The laws composed for the Parisian goldsmiths at the command of St. Louis by Étienne Boileau, his supervisor of merchants, will serve us as an example. These regulated the standard of gold and silver to be used by the Parisian goldsmiths, requiring the metals to be of Parisian fineness, the highest then in the world. It was forbidden that men make use of copper, brass, tin, or any other base metal, under a penalty of fine or banishment. It was important, therefore, that above all in the course of the labor the metal employed should suffer no adulteration.

If so much stress was laid upon the assurance of the purity of the metal it is no doubt because, without it, valuation would have had no certain basis; and this amounts to saying that account was taken only of the weight. And in fact in all the inventories of the Middle Ages the weight of goldsmiths' work is scrupulously noted. Letters patent of January, 1549, again fixed the alloy of gold and silver. Every inferior alloy exposed the offender to an arbitrary penalty and to the loss of his profession. In consequence of these edicts the goldsmiths were so timid that they hardly dared to resort to solders from the fear that at the remelting the metal worked upon might be found to be too base an alloy. In the large pieces they resorted to silver pegs to attach the different parts together, for they took good care not to solder them.

The exact value of jewels depending on their weight and consequently on their standard, no measure to prevent deception seemed superfluous. For further prudence the goldsmiths were obliged from the fourteenth century on to have their shops in conspicuous places on the public streets and to establish their furnaces in the middle of those apartments, open to all eyes. They were thus

subjected to constant watching, the more easy because royal authority assigned certain much-frequented streets for the lodgings of the goldsmiths. And the measures of watching were not limited to that continual inspection. Master goldsmiths were subject to frequent visits, at least once a month, and at a day and hour unforeseen. At the time of their visit the guards were accompanied by an officer of justice who quickly seized all suspected pieces.

If it was so necessary to know the standard and the weight of manufactured pieces it was because they were a form of wealth. At that period the value of moneys was expressed by weight. And what were those pieces of gold and silverware if they were not money taken out of circulation? And they were so considered, since a collection of them was called a treasure. Their possession constituted the most evident part of personal property. So the prince who was able to monopolize the precious metals hastened to convert them into heavy wares, which he displayed in broad daylight. When we read the inventory of Charles V., of Charles VI., of the Duke de Berry, of the Duke de Bourgogne, and of so many others we are dazzled at the enumeration of these pieces of goldsmith's work.

Suffice it to say that the inventory of the treasure of Charles V. contains no less than 3,906 numbers and occupies 395 pages. Louis XIV. ornamented his palace at Versailles with furniture of massive silver. In the reception parlors were silver sedan chairs, silver boxes for holding orange trees, silver candlesticks upon gilded tables, and silver fireplaces two feet high and three and a half feet across; and it was not only at the houses of princes of the royal family that furniture made by goldsmiths displayed their splendor. Madame de Séigné informs us that Madame de Lude possessed silver furniture worth twenty-seven thousand crowns.

In the eighteenth century the possession of many pieces of gold and silverware constituted not only a proof of good circumstances, but was considered by the family that owned them as an evidence of distinction. The lawyer Savin was of this opin-

ion. Having bought some silverware, he had it rolled down the stairs in order that the dents might bear witness to the antiquity of his family. Princes and middle-class people were proud of this silverware, and they had no care to conceal their pride. One of the merits of the ware, and not the least, was that of exposing the wealth of its owner to the eyes of all.

Taking these precious metals out of circulation had a dire effect. All the gold and silver worked up into vessels diminished the specie and paralyzed business, the great public works, and the payment of taxes. It was highly necessary to limit that fury for fine ware. The legislator aimed at this while forbidding goldsmiths to melt down coins. These prescriptions, which date from the thirteenth century, would have remained of no avail if it had not been expressly forbidden to employ precious metals for an alloy inferior to the one fixed by law, which was clearly superior to the standard of the currency. In this way the goldsmiths were prevented from turning aside the coined specie from circulation, in order to convert it into utensils of gold and silver. In spite of the laws, in spite of the guards, in spite of the royal authority, in spite of everything, rich people of the middle class did not consider it any harm to furnish work to the goldsmiths.

Then sumptuary laws were resorted to in order to strike at luxury at its source. In 1294 Philip the Handsome forbade all those having an income of less than £6,000 to have drinking and eating vessels of gold and silver. Consequently the small nobility and the middle classes had to send their valuable ware to be remelted. Eight years later those who had been exempt had to convert half of their silverware into money. Louis II. put the sumptuary laws into operation again. He considered them an excellent means of securing the precious metals that he needed to pay his standing army and to bribe the servants of his enemies. He forbade the working up into vessels and jewels of more than one mark of gold or of silver for each object. These laws succeeded each other at somewhat regular intervals,

which is the best indication of their small efficacy. They were of precarious application and the luxury of the middle classes was not diminished by them.

These ordinances, edicts, and sumptuary laws bring to light one important fact, which is that the goldsmith's trade was, so to speak, the counterpart of coinage. So the goldsmith's art lost its importance in the greatness of the economic rôle of the material he worked in; and although in the Middle Ages the art was carried to great perfection it was far from being estimated at its just value.

These fine wares being reservoirs of precious metals in prosperous times, when the hard times came people were compelled to draw from these treasuries. These marvelous vessels were then broken up, thrown into the crucible, and melted down, to be stamped with the image of the sovereign. Thus disappeared the treasure of Louis of Anjou, that of Charles V., and likewise the luxurious furniture of the court of Louis XIV. Massive plates, slender ewers, engraved tankards, ornamental fountains, went pell-mell into the furnace to pay the expenses of an expedition. When the royal treasure was exhausted the silverware of private people was resorted to. The regent after having enjoined upon his subjects not to have at their houses more than £500 of silver ordered requisitions. Sometimes private individuals did not wait the royal orders to destroy what had been their chief glory. To equip themselves and to carry on their campaign the crusaders sold their property, mortgaged their lands, and sent their precious wares to the furnace.

Pillage was another cause of this destruction. The treasury of Charles the Bold fell into the hands of the Swiss. Those of Charles VI. were the prey of the English. Churches and abbeys were no safeguard for the jewels that were sheltered. Those who had made rich donations to them hastened to take these back when they were needed, although it is true that they were very formal about it. Thus there is left to us hardly any of the precious vessels which ministered to the vanity of our ancestors.

Until the Middle Ages the goldsmiths were considered simply artisans, but later this was changed. In the course of the heroic campaign which effected the capture and then the loss of the kingdom of Naples the French nobility became refined by their contact with the masterpieces of antiquity. From Italy they brought back an awakened curiosity and the idea that luxury does not consist in material splendor only but in grace as well. Henceforth people were less anxious about the intrinsic value than about the form, and goldsmiths were classed as artists. And since it is the law that there is always a tendency to extremes, people delighted in emblematical combinations, in complicated forms, and, as always happens when the thought becomes separated from that which supports it, in allegory.

The change of taste at the beginning of the Renaissance was not the only reason for the change in sentiment. At that period precious stones, hitherto confined to very few hands, began to be abundant. Then the goldsmith's trade was supplanted by that of the jeweler. And this trade from that moment had an increasing importance. Instead of burdening themselves with heavy silver people preferred to imitate Mazarin. He learned to his cost how easy gold and silverware are lost. It may be said that the setting up at auction of his gold and silverware by the Fronde contributed not a little to give him an unconquerable attachment to precious stones. With much appropriateness he hastened to acquire twelve magnificent diamonds of equal beauty, to which he gave his name. It was very difficult to seize these, as the sumptuary laws could hardly reach them; and there was the additional advantage that he could wear upon his person his whole fortune. Precious stones are personal property *par excellence*. Nicolas de Harley de Sancy having borrowed money upon a precious stone in order to come to the help of Henry III., king of France, then in cruel embarrassment, had to send the jewel into Switzerland. He made many recommendations to the bearer and told him to beware of the brigands who infested the roads.

The bearer answered for the treasure upon his life, and on the journey he was assassinated. De Sancy, who had perfect confidence in his servant, had him opened before him and in his stomach found again the diamond that he had swallowed.

Desirous of profiting by these advantages people made great acquisitions of precious stones. In order not to take them out of use they were employed exclusively for the adornment of the person in the form of light jewels easy to place in safety at the first alarm. This new form of hoarding caused great trouble in public finance. This time the furnace could not be used as a remedy.

A piece of goldsmith's work always has its intrinsic value. It represents a certain sum. It is a fact against which nothing will avail, that, whether it is an ornament of the church or of the table, this work is condemned to fatal destruction. Wishing to make art out of wealth, the labor of the goldsmith is ephemeral. In this century silver has acquired a power before unsuspected. As a river which was only a brook at its source, but grows larger the farther it goes, so silver swells as it circulates. It becomes richer from its tributaries and at the same time enriches its banks. While in former times people were anxious to get their fortune out of circulation and to hoard it up, which gave to the goldsmith's trade its force, it is a question now of causing wealth to circulate, of putting it in motion, and this is why the art is endangered at its source. Who would be foolish enough nowadays to fix his property in costly vessels when the surer way to increase it is to confide it to him who asks for it—to agriculture and to industry? There is no art which holds out against reason. And then we have some duties to fulfil to our fellow-men. Giving is a strict duty. What an insult it would be to their misery to expose to their hungry eyes heavy gold and silverware on sumptuous dressers! It would be necessary to break up that precious ware, and as Saint Radegonde once did, to cast the fragments to their greed and hunger.

SOCIAL LIFE IN MODERN GREECE.

BY PROFESSOR EDWARD CAPPS, PH.D.

OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO.

THERE have always been certain strong centrifugal forces at work upon Greek society tending to prevent the close union and the compact organization to which other peoples of kindred races have attained. The conformation of the land, with its plains and valleys separated by high mountain ranges, will not alone account for this phenomenon; for, as a general thing, the individual states in antiquity were not easily held under a stable centralized organization. The love of individual liberty manifested itself in a restiveness under the restraints of a government even by themselves, and in a constant tendency to faction. The same traits and tendencies are prominent in modern Greece. The government is in the hands of representatives chosen by the people themselves, and the restraints and burdens laid by the government on the individual are less burdensome, perhaps, than in any other monarchy of Europe. And yet the people are not contented. In the opinion of many observers if the control of the powers were once removed Greece would suffer a revolution.

Leaving aside, however, the influence of the powers and the necessity of union against the Turk, there is to-day a powerful unifying and nationalizing force which did not exist in like degree in ancient Greece—the church. The church contributed most largely to the final rejection of the Turkish yoke. She fostered the national feeling and spread the national language where otherwise they would have disappeared. There is hope, therefore, in the Greek Church for the influence which will counteract the race tendency to political disintegration.

The Greeks of to-day, like their ancestors, are a gregarious people, showing a distinct aptitude for village and city life. Over one half of the population finds a livelihood in

agricultural and pastoral pursuits. Yet they do not live, as a rule, isolated from one another, each on his own farm, but grouped together in little villages. This habit is due, it is true, not to the social instinct alone, but partly to the necessity, which has been felt more or less constantly from Homer down, to maintain a defense against predatory incursions. They group their dwellings around a little church and the open space surrounding it, turning their backs to the world outside. Village life, in consequence, with its social gatherings and festivities and its intimate neighborly relationships, is now, as it always has been, the characteristic life of Greece, while the seaport towns, with their mixed population and their bustling trade, exhibit Greek life largely modified by contact with the outside world.

One of the fundamental unwritten laws of the ancient Greeks was the duty of hospitality to strangers. Zeus was supposed to punish severely any breach of this law. Nowadays there is no fear of divine punishment, but the traveler rarely asks in vain for food and shelter. The hospitality is hearty and genuine. The wife of the village mayor, to whom chiefly falls the entertainment of strangers, will give up her bed as cheerfully and as graciously as she sets before her guest the best food and sweetmeats that her house affords. The offer of money in return is generally rejected in a manner that indicates that the very thought of pay is painful, though a present of some kind to the housewife or to the children is acceptable. One is often touched to note the many little sacrifices which his visit entails upon his kindly hosts, but no word of protest on his part is listened to. His visit seems to give genuine pleasure.

The life of the village Greek is spent for the most part out of doors. The women,

when not busy with their husbands and brothers in the fields, sit at their doors carding and spinning wool, plying the rude hand-loom, or embroidering with great skill and artistic taste their aprons, jackets, or coverlets. Every unmarried girl thus lays by against the day of marriage a treasure of useful and decorative articles, which form an essential part of her dowry. While engaged in this work the women make their calls and gossip to their hearts' content.

The men too have their time for gossip during the long noonday hours when it is too hot to work, and in the evening, when they make themselves comfortable in front of the houses where a cup of coffee or a glass of wine is to be had. These localities, dignified by the name of *cafés*, are to be found in the smallest villages. In one town of no more than twenty-five houses I counted as many as five of them. These are the clubs of the peasant. The never-ending theme of conversation is politics. Their new-born freedom and the democratic form of government seem to have revived among the Greeks of our time the ancient zest for discussion. No sooner does a leader come into prominence, be he statesman or demagogue, than the newspapers, to which has fallen the rôle in public life once held by Aristophanes and his fellow-poets of comedy, begin to vilify and satirize, denounce and ridicule him. No prime minister or justice of the Supreme Court of the Areopagus¹ escapes the venomous slander of the partisan press and the thousands who echo their calumniations. Even King George, an exemplary monarch, is criticized with a freedom unknown in other states of Europe.

This trait of the Greek people is significant mainly of the intense jealousy with which they guard their freedom in all things, a jealousy which impels them to accuse all for fear that the few guilty may escape. This intemperate and wanton spirit is akin to that which produced the institution of ostracism in ancient Athens, and which embittered the lives of her noblest statesmen. We Americans can readily understand it and condone it, not only in view of the

natural reaction of the Greeks after a long period of oppression, but also because of the inborn good nature of the people which underlies all their abusiveness. Slanders against living statesmen seem to be accepted there as here as a part of the political game, to be believed perhaps in the heat of conflict, but forgotten as soon as its object has yielded his place to another.

Strangers are likely to be deceived by this wholesale accusation of their own statesmen by the Greeks into the conviction that a low standard of honesty prevails among the official class. The same charge is often made against the Greeks of the classical period on the strength of the frequent imputations of bribery and theft found in political orations and in the comic poets. But the political history of our own democracy should warn us against making generalizations on the basis of *ex parte*² evidence. We with our popular government and our freedom of speech are often better able to judge the institutions of ancient and modern Greece than the inhabitants of countries where truth and falsehood are alike suppressed.

The discussion of current events by groups of men in the villages during the idle hours becomes in the cities, especially in Athens, not merely a pastime but an occupation. The Greek peasant strikes the stranger from the West as an idle person enough. He keeps long hours, from sunrise to sunset, with an hour of rest at noon, but he works in a leisurely way, stopping often to roll a cigarette or to exchange a word with a passer-by. The soil does not require careful tillage, and the scanty subsistence with which the Greek is content is easily obtained from the willing earth. But if the peasant does not seem to be a hard worker, the average citizen of Athens gives the impression of being absolutely lazy. Perhaps lazy is not the word, for there is energy and animation in every word and gesture. The indolence is not mental at any rate. The Greek of the city is rather a gentleman of leisure, no matter how soiled and shabby his white plaited skirt and his gay tufted shoes, or his ill-fitting French

dress, if he has abandoned the national costume. His days are spent lounging about the *cafés*, his evenings in the public squares. He is always discussing something, wherever he is. It is a mystery how those who have apparently no trade or occupation gain a livelihood. And yet the pinch of poverty is not often noticed, and all seem contented and happy.

One is amazed at the number of officers of the army and navy in the streets. Greece has not a large standing army and only a few cruisers, and yet one sees almost as many officers apparently as in Berlin. They too are generally seated in front of the *cafés*. The fact is that the list of civil and military servants is crowded with the relatives and friends of the members of parliament and of the higher state officials who are compelled to make a place for their followers. It is the spoils system gone mad. The professions too are overcrowded. The youth of the country flock to the capital to attend the university. Consequently there is a distressing plethora of doctors and lawyers and teachers. Their number and their poverty increase the pressure for positions under the government. The passionate desire for higher education and for the life of the city has caused a congestion of trained and competent men in the capital, which increases the burden on the government on the one hand and drains the agricultural districts, already thinly settled, of much-needed laborers on the other. The outcome is difficult to foresee. Only the ridiculously low cost of living renders the position of thousands of professional men tolerable.

The life even of those who have a trade or profession which occupies them would seem to us a constant holiday. Religion, which is responsible for the numerous feast days, on which it is not customary to work, has imposed on all with rigorous severity the fast days also, on which the nourishment permitted is not enough to sustain a hard day's toil. Between the days of fasting and the days of feasting one third of the year is taken from serious labor. Perhaps the number of the days of effective labor should be still further reduced, for the

fast days, generally following upon a period of strict abstemiousness, are likely to be kept with such hearty and reckless observance by the pious Greek that he is unfit for real work for several days afterward.

Outside the larger cities the principal events which excite public interest and which constitute the most important episodes in the life of the people are the annual festivals in honor of the patron saint of the locality. In the cities these occasions are only incidents, and do not absorb the attention of the whole community—excepting, of course, such festivals as Easter Sunday, so often described by travelers. The ceremonies on these occasions offer many points of resemblance with the corresponding customs in ancient Greece, and convince the student that, though the religion has changed from paganism to Christianity, the rites of paganism have had here, as in Italy, a sufficiently strong hold upon the people to have compelled recognition and adoption by the church of Christ.

As every locality in antiquity was presided over by its own protecting god, so now it does homage to its patron saint, whose very name often recalls the deity of old. Little churches or shrines are to be found at every turn, on the tops of mountains far from the dwellings of men, by the side of springs, at the cross-roads, in short wherever some manifestation of nature has inspired in this nature-loving people feelings of awe or gratitude. Each church is the center of religious observances at least once a year, no matter how grossly neglected the balance of the time. The festivals of the patron saints of the more important churches, especially those which possess a miracle-working shrine, are celebrated with elaborate ceremonies. Before the arrival of the saint's day families and even whole villages come from a distance with offerings and provisions and encamp near the church. Early on the morning of the festival throngs arrive from the neighborhood and booths for the sale of provisions are erected. After the early mass and the customary offerings at the altar the worshipers partake of the feast of lamb that is roasted whole on spits by

each group of visitors, and then devote themselves to the festivities. The stock amusements are dancing, singing, and listening to the musicians and story-tellers. It will be observed that, as at the ancient Greek festivals and at the church festivals of our own time, religion seems rather to be the excuse for the coming together than the object of the meeting, which is almost wholly pleasure-making.

The traveler is likely at any time to stumble upon one of these country festivals. The happy faces of the handsome men and women, the pleasing contrast of the white cotton kilts of the men and the bright colors of the embroidered vests of the women, whose hair is bound by gay parti-colored kerchiefs, and the slow and stately movements of the dance accompanying the monotonous shrill music of the pipes combine to form a scene which rivals in picturesqueness anything to be found in Europe. The forms of the dance vary slightly from village to village, but its general character is much the same everywhere. The men and women, sometimes together, sometimes apart, join hands, forming a long curved line. At the end of the line is the leader, on whom falls the burden of the dance. When he gets tired the next in order takes his place. The dancers follow the rhythms of the music, stepping slowly forward and backward, gradually moving about the circle, their bodies swaying slightly. The leader, swinging a handkerchief in his right hand, often indulges in more lively motions, now springing forward, now throwing his head and body far back, again whirling about under the arm of his neighbor, and so on through endless variations. One detects no hilarity, no boisterousness. Though the dance evidently gives the participants intense pleasure, yet a certain seriousness and decorum pervade the whole performance. Drunkenness on these occasions is altogether exceptional.

Marriages are events of great social importance. Two ceremonies are essential, the betrothal and the wedding. The bride has very little to say about the selection of her husband. Her parents select for her a man of good character who is willing to

accept her for the dowry which they can offer. Desirable young men are at a premium, so that both parents and brothers are often compelled to years of industry and economy to insure an advantageous match. Even the younger sisters are enlisted in the cause, for custom demands that the younger shall not marry before the older. At the formal betrothal the bridegroom converses for the first time with his future wife, whom in many cases he has not even seen before. From that time on the two are bound together even more indissolubly than after marriage, for while divorce is possible, though difficult, between the betrothal and the wedding it is considered the height of dishonor, and often a serious personal risk, for the bridegroom to break off his engagement.

The wedding, which is generally celebrated at the home of the bride, is marked by a good deal of ceremonial. A table in the center of the room, covered with candles, serves as the altar. By it stand the priests, dressed in their rich gold-embroidered vestments, facing the bride and bridegroom, who are supported by a man who is generally an influential relative or friend, and sometimes by a woman also. The bride and groom are crowned with wreaths of orange blossoms, tied together by broad white ribbons which stream down over the shoulders of each. The best man assists in the placing of the ring and in the thrice-repeated lifting and crossing of the wreaths, while the priest goes through with the ritual. The newly married pair then march three times around the altar, joining hands with the priests, through the thick fumes of incense, while the wedding guests pelt the couple with sweetmeats. The wedding feast follows, protracted into the next day. Then the bridal pair is escorted by singing maidens to their new home, accompanied by a procession of wagons which convey the bridal bed, decked with flowers, and the dowry of the bride, displayed to the best advantage.

This leads us to the consideration of the position of women in general. The absence of the women of the better classes from the streets of the cities is noticeable, and

indicative of the survival of the ancient tradition of the impropriety of their appearance in public. When they do leave their homes they are always attended. Even the marketing falls to the husband or to the steward. But contact with western people is rapidly breaking up the oriental seclusion of the women. In the country women naturally have greater personal liberty, but this is more than offset by the increased labor that is laid upon them. In some parts they are little better than slaves, doing the heaviest work in the fields and leaving the lighter work to the men. They are nowhere regarded as the equals of men. The husbands are the lords of the household, holding an absolute sway as in ancient times. Woman has no share in the education which men receive. She is the housewife, rearer of the children, servant, and little more.

The family life in the country is simple and even primitive. A large part of the house is often reserved for the domestic animals in winter. In the front part live the family, crowded together often in a single room, men, women, and children together. No partition wall separates the living-room from the stable in many instances. At one end of the room is the fireplace, but frequently there is no chimney, the smoke finding its way out as best it can, as in the Homeric house of Odysseus. At night the family sleep on rugs or mattresses spread upon the floor. By day cushions which serve as seats replace the rugs. In such peasant homes the meals are served upon the ground. The make-up of the family is quite patriarchal. Not infrequently one finds three generations under the same roof, all yielding obedience to the aged head of the house.

One is impressed, finally, by the eager desire for knowledge which pervades the Greek race of to-day, and their clearness in acquiring it and in putting it to practical account. We cannot but admire the wisdom of the young government in organizing its excellent scheme of education and in throwing the gates of learning open to all her citizens. In a little more than sixty

years of independent existence she has built up an educational system that would do credit to any country, beginning with the primary schools and culminating with the university. Instruction is given without cost through all the grades. The opportunity for education is eagerly seized upon by all classes of the people. The little donkey boy who conducts you through the mountain passes can read, write, and cipher, and if you are at a loss for a modern Greek word will understand you if you borrow from the vocabulary of Herodotus and Xenophon. The University of Athens draws a larger number of students than Harvard or the University of Michigan, though all Greece is only as large as West Virginia. The national literature is already of sufficient importance and merit to have been given a place with that of Spain and Norway in the schools of France. In a few generations the average of culture in Greece will doubtless be on a par with that of the other nations of Europe.

The intellectual activity of the Greek race is well illustrated by the position which her people have acquired in the commercial world. Through their aptitude for languages and their success in studying the methods and conditions of commerce and trade they have won a unique place in the commerce of the Mediterranean, of which they have practically a monopoly. The total tonnage of vessels owned and controlled by Greeks puts Greece in the third or fourth place among the commercial powers of the world. In every capital of Europe are found strong Greek banking houses and business establishments. This success in business presupposes not only business enterprise and sagacity but also business honesty, in spite of all one hears about the cheating and trickery of the Greeks. It must be remembered that the traveler usually comes in contact only with the petty tradesman who does business on the oriental plan, which is comparable to American horse-trading in its methods, and with the hack-drivers and dragomen, who are notorious the world over.

THE SCIENCE OF THE MORNING FAST.

BY EDWARD HOOKER DEWEY, M. D.

I.

THE habit of eating the morning meal before exercise has created a demand for it is universal in America. The question whether it may not wisely be omitted is being widely discussed pro and con. There are some reasons to conclude that the omission is based on the soundest physiology.

There are four very striking evolutions that take place in the human body during every day of twenty-four hours. There is (1) *the evolution of destruction*, of death, during which the destructive forces so exceed the constructive forces that death would be the outcome if not arrested by rest, refreshment, and sleep. It begins the moment when nature opens the eyes to the light of a new-born day, the time of all times when the body, mind, and soul are at a physiological balance. From that moment, during every conscious hour, every movement, every thought, every motion is a force that tends to death, the aggregate result of which is the tired-out condition that invites rest, sleep, as the only means for the restoration of the lost balance.

What is it that gets so tired out during every day that so large a part of it has to be spent in unconscious rest? Where is this sense of exhaustion realized?

The brain is the power-house of the human plant. The most important organ of the body, it is so soft, so friable in structure, that nature has wisely placed it within a double-plated turret of flinty hardness for protection. Let it be conceived that within its depths are three self-generating electric batteries; that one of them generates force for organic and muscle action; that the second generates force for intellectual action, and that the third, which may be considered the home of the soul, generates emotional and moral energy.

These batteries are united in the most intimate and delicate sympathies and are rel-

atively drawn upon according to "every deed done in the body" until there is a degree of exhaustion of each that makes rest, sleep, the one supreme object of desire. The batteries have lost their power to generate electric energy and so love, hate, ambition—every desire, whether of vice or virtue, languishes into the unconsciousness of a seeming death, the evolution of destruction has its end, and (2) *the evolution of rest* begins.

The relations, the sympathies, between these batteries and the stomach are intimate, delicate, and vastly important. Digestion is a continuous call upon these batteries for power. Sleep ends all calls for mind and muscle energy. The call that comes from the stomach during sleep is a study of intense interest and importance. The hours of sleep are the times of a recharging of these batteries. To fall asleep is to fall into the hands of nature; she realizes the need and so by a suspension of consciousness she closes the doors of the power-house to all the exhaustive demands that human desire can incite. This seeming death for a time is the one necessity to the regeneration of power. But there is one door to the power-house that nature is unable to close against—unseasonable, unreasonable demand, the door from which goes out energy for the working forces in the stomach. With all the doors closed these batteries are in repose also and power is stored for the hours of labor.

These conceptions raise a nice question in physiology that has not been considered, or at least decided—the questions of the need of food during sleep. We are often admonished not to go to bed hungry—advice that is always timely when involving the idea that the last meal of the day shall be so timed that bed-time hunger shall be impossible. It may not be entirely presumptuous to suggest that this question has never been considered other than from the standpoint

of impressions that involve neither logic nor physiological insight.

Since food is always taken to satisfy the wastes of the body from general activities it would seem that the last meal of the day should be all-sufficient to meet the demands created before the hour of sleep, and that the death-like repose of sleep no more indicates the need of food than coal is called for in the fire-box of a locomotive that is to occupy the hours of night on a side track.

Behind this rather rational presumption is the physiological fact that the digestion of a meal is a severe tax on the brain centers under the best of digestive conditions—a tax that involves a marked loss of mental and physical energy during its active stage and a still greater when there is a loss of power from debility, disease, or mental troubles; and then during sleep there is a marked absence of digestive conditions, as will be considered further on. In line with this idea are the experimental results of a full stomach at bed time, in the restless, dreamy sleep and the morning mind, somewhat in the condition of “a lunatic asylum without a keeper.”

Unless the laws of digestion are reversed there can be no complete rest during the night, no complete recharging of the exhausted batteries, if power is called out over food masses that convert human stomachs and bowels into the foulest of sewers. Every physiological indication and condition points to absolute repose all along the lines of digestion. During the last few years this matter has been undergoing a practical testing by a great many people who have been seeking health along physiological lines and the evidence is overwhelmingly in support of an unhindered recharging of exhausted powers.

(3) *The evolution of hunger.* On arising in the morning after a perfect sleep has restored the whole system to its physiological balance there should be no hunger. What is hunger? It is a sense of exhaustion arising from general activities of some hours' duration, attended with an acute desire for food that is worth the digestive process, and it seems to be centered in the mouth, throat, and stomach. The term appetite applied to

this condition has more of a reference to the sense of enjoyment than to the hunger condition. The term appetite is applied to any morbid craving or to abnormal desire, as the appetite for stimulants.

Morning hunger at the ordinary time of the American breakfast is a physiological impossibility, the seeming hunger being only appetite—a craving as abnormal as the craving for the morning dram—and is the acquired result of a life-long untimely meal. But more than this it is disease undergoing evolution, and, as in the case of stimulants, total abstinence is the only cure. And yet there is no meal of the day which is thought to be so necessary by those who are not strictly well, and the vehemence with which they assert, when hearing of so novel and radical a means in health culture for the first time, that they are positively unable to do one thing until a breakfast is eaten is strongly suggestive that for them sleep is a very exhaustive experience, an unusual tax to all of the constitutional powers.

Hunger is a call from nature for both rest and refreshment; is there any such call in the morning? To what end has been sleep if there is need to walk from the bed-room to the dining-room, or if there is exhaustion so early in the morning and before the labor of the day is fairly begun?

How long does it take to create a normal demand for food in one who has been relieved of the disease through a morning fast? This is a new question in medical science, or in the natural science in health culture. It has been ascertained through the experience of hundreds that even the severest manual labor can be performed for several hours “on an empty stomach” and with more ease, energy, and cheer than ever is possible after a morning meal, and that it can be done even up to high noon without unusual exhaustion or the inducement of any of the pangs of hunger. With all who have wholly given up the morning meal, and they are to be found among farmers, laborers, mechanics, etc., the forenoon is considered by far the best half of the day, for any business that calls for mind or muscle. The great number of people who have been giving this

matter a prolonged test would seem to reasonably satisfy the demands of scientific evidence.

Not only is the evidence all one way but it is clearly supported by physiological evidence. The brain batteries fully recharged by sleep are able to generate power for any kind of labor for several hours with a concentration of energy on the general activities alone, whereas there would be a loss if there were a diversion of power to digestive work.

(4) *The evolution of digestive power.* On arising in the morning, there being no natural hunger the stomach and mouth glands are in a quiescent condition. We know that it is only the hungry mouth that waters at a well-spread table and we may presume that the stomach glands are for a like reason similarly affected. One of the constituents of the gastric juice is one of the most powerful of acids, hydrochloric; it cannot be presumed that, powerful as it is, it is generated and accumulated several hours in advance of any need of it. Indeed the storage capacity of the entire gland outfit may be considered very small as compared with the output required to digest a meal.

The evolution of digestive power is a development, then, rather of cell energy of the glands themselves than the generative cells; it is a development of fiber energy of the stirring muscles of the stomach; a development of power of the mouth glands and of the sense of taste which makes eating one of the most acutely pleasurable of all experiences. It is an anomaly in physiology that while the evolution of exhaustion is going on there is an evolution of strength of all the powers involved in digestion; we are always conscious of a vigorous summing up at every belated meal.

As it requires a long day "in pastures green" for the evolution of the evening pail of milk, so does it require hours of undisturbed cell energy that these waters of life may flow with due copiousness in the fulness of time. Is it possible for these conditions to avail in the morning when sleep has been so exhausting that there is

scarcely power to draw the breath of life until excitement is roused by hot coffee, hot cakes, and hot steaks? Perhaps, *no*, and with the emphasis of crashing thunder.

The digestion of a meal is an operation in chemistry with the conditions immutable. When the food mass exceeds the capacity of the stored-up energy of the gland cells the chemistry of digestion is succeeded by the chemistry of decomposition, and this involves a waste of power and therefore an evolution of physical, moral, and mental disease and debility that is frightful to contemplate when its largely avoidable character is clearly realized. There is no human ailment that is not a developed hereditary weakness, local or general, through the waste of power over food masses that are in excess of the chemical solvents. Indigestion is the preparatory work necessary for an easy invasion of diphtheria and other wreckers of human hearts and homes.

The process of digestion is singularly influenced by mental or soul conditions. It is as if there were electric wires reaching from the very center of the soul itself to each individual cell of the stomach glands to electrify to the highest energy with cheer or to paralyze with woe. No leaf can be more sensitive to the gentlest zephyr than these gland cells to weal or woe. They respond to cheer as the fire to the wind. This wonderful law in nature is strikingly manifest during all the years of childhood and youth, when to be happy every moment is as the very breath of life. Nature never inflicts soul-depressing tasks upon childhood and youth.

The study of the moral forces involved in digestion opens up a new chapter in moral science and one well worthy of the best efforts of the masters among the specialists. It raises the question of an evolution of soul cheer through special efforts with reference to its power over digestive energy or upon the life of the cells themselves. This duly understood involves the need to cultivate a cheerful spirit, not only as a matter of self-interest but, in a larger sense, for the soul interests of others within social reach to be affected by reflex action.

The study of the moral science of digestive energy opens up the most entrancing possibilities for the individual, the home, the church, the state. Courage is contagious, even as is fear; so the light and life that shine for all in a great, good "natural soul" are most helpful in their reflex power upon all within social reach.

There is another evolution of wonderful interest and import that has its beginning with all fasts that end with hunger and is a direct result, an evolution, of curative energy. Nature is always at work to restore the normal condition in all parts diseased. Wounds go on healing on the dying bed. Ulcers of the stomach have healed during the last weeks of enforced fasting that ended in death from Bright's disease. The symptoms, the suffering, the persistence of disease are always a revelation of nature's curative will power. The one condition that she battles most heroically for is an empty stomach, and to this end she always sets a guard at its entrance, strong in proportion to the need, in the guise of aversion to food that vital power be not wasted over decomposing food masses. This guard, however, is as a general fact hopelessly weak for needed defense, since food is always enforced regardless of adverse digestive conditions, due to the disease.

As a scheme of health culture morning and between-meal fasts possess the striking merit of involving no tax upon time and patience by means that always end in disappointment, or of care or depressing worry about the health. One arises in the morning with a clear head to have all the time for business or pleasure, the inevitable physiological evolutions—health evolutions when there is disease—to go on as the heart beats and lungs expand, automatically, unconsciously, powerfully. And the testimony of experience is vast that they do go on with relieving, curing energy in all parts diseased.

As to the practicality and the utility of habitually taking the daily bread within the limits of digestive power, a volume would

be needed in which to tell what has been done and to outline its possibilities for the enlargement of human life.

For the mothers of the land there are not more than half the hours to be spent in the kitchen; for so they all estimate. With perfect between-meal comfort the boys of the home find the first, portentous alcoholic potion adds only discomfort, for there are no complaints to be soothed. With the whole body aglow with health there is the greatest defensive condition against disease, no matter how contagious, and no less against an evolution of the alcoholic disease.

The saloon is a portentous possibility, a standing menace against the life of every mother's son who grows up in the ways of unrecognized gluttony. The new crusade against the saloon is to begin at the home and is to be conducted along physiological lines. The pangs of the alcoholic disease are inexorable, and legislative enactments cannot abolish them. The saloon must be withered out of existence by a higher home culture.

The mother must be made to know absolutely that there is not starvation but health evolutions in all fasts when hunger is possible, that she may see a clearly defined duty that there shall be no eating without hunger. It must be a law of her daily living that her carefully prepared, well-spread table shall be approached with every power involved fairly restive with stored-up energy. In this way only can there be the highest possible reach of between-meal felicity, strength and clearness of intellect, power of body, and of a bubbling good nature.

In no other way can power be cultured and maintained. In no other way can the mother of the family meet the measure of her duty to her defenseless children, who must be happy without thought of health needs.

And these health evolutions duly guarded, duly matured, give to every child born of woman the very highest possible assurance of reaching the natural limit of life, to die the easier death of old age.

THE SON OF A TORY.

BY CLINTON SCOLLARD.

BRING THE EXPERIENCES OF WILTON AUBREY IN THE MOHAWK VALLEY AND ELSEWHERE, DURING THE SUMMER OF 1777,
NOW FOR THE FIRST TIME EDITED FROM PRIVATE PAPERS.

CHAPTER I.

NEWS FROM THE NORTH.

I HAD just come in from assisting David at some work in the fields, had cast myself upon the settle, and taken up a copy of *The Gentleman's Magazine*, fresh from London, when my father entered the room. His wig was awry, a bright spot burned upon either cheek, and his whole manner betrayed unwonted excitement. I knew him too well to rouse him further by noticing these indications of agitation, and greeted him with what calmness I could summon.

"The work is progressing well," I said. "David thinks we shall have a wonderful yield."

Either he deemed my remark too trivial to call for a reply, or was too much occupied with what was passing in his own mind to heed what I said. He at once broke out:

"I've great news, Wilton, great news!"

Then lowering his voice to a whisper, and thrusting his head forward in so unnatural a fashion that a momentary thrill of apprehension shot through me lest the news he spoke of had unbalanced him, he continued,

"There's to be an invasion from the North. The time's come, my boy. We must remain inactive no longer. We must be off and join our friends."

I had often pictured to myself how I should meet this decision, so long expected and so dreaded. I had rehearsed again and again what remonstrances I should offer. I had imagined with what eloquence I should stand out against it. But now that the words were in my ears I could only say, and that lamely enough,

"Think of your health, sir!"

However strongly other feelings entered into the matter, everything was subordinate

to that consideration. I did not even have the least curiosity in regard to the source of the remarkable information he had communicated.

"The news has given me new life," was my father's answer to my expostulation, and for the time he certainly did look ten years younger than was his wont.

Shaking with excitement, his voice still suppressed as though he feared to take even the walls of the room into his confidence, he now revealed to me how he had come into possession of the stirring tidings.

It appeared that while he had been walking in his favorite path at the top of the apple orchard early that afternoon he had been attracted by a slight rustling in the elder bushes surrounding a stump at a point where the path bent away across the great meadow toward the settlement. On approaching the bushes he discovered an Indian hidden among them. The concealed redskin signed that he had something to communicate, so my father went among the shrubbery seated himself upon the stump, and listened to the Indian's story. The man proved to be a runner in the employ of Sir John Johnson, and was bearing news to certain trusted persons of Tory persuasion farther down the valley of the coming of the baronet and others from Quebec. He had been ordered to stop upon his way and urge my father to join the invading force at Buck Island, near the entrance to the St. Lawrence, where a rendezvous had been planned for early July. The runner stated that it was the intention of the leaders to get the expedition under way from Lachine on the 21st instant. It was now the 30th.

"Imagine my delight, Wilton," cried my father, regaining his natural manner as he closed the Indian's narrative, "on discovering, when I inquired if the baronet were at

the head of the invasion, that the commander-in-chief was Barry St. Leger!"

This intelligence was a keen blow to me, for I now saw that all attempts to dissuade my father from setting out to join the invaders would be useless. I had thought while he was relating the runner's story that perhaps after the heat of enthusiasm had died away he would listen to my arguments in favor of remaining quietly at home, and possibly finally be persuaded that this was the course of wisdom. The introduction of St. Leger's name put a different face upon the whole matter. My father and St. Leger had been close friends at Cambridge, and messmates later, before the health of the former had compelled him to give up the army. The two had not seen one another for twenty years, yet my father preserved the liveliest affection for his college companion, and he, if his occasional letters were to be believed, still held in kindly recollection their youthful comradeship.

Rumors of Burgoyne's advance had reached us, but the runner's message was our first intimation of the intended descent of a second armament. Being for the moment too downhearted to act the part I had previously determined upon in case affairs took an ill turn, I sat speechless and vacant-eyed. My father attributed my silence and dejection to my disapproval of his project on the ground of his health, and began striding about the room as though to convince me of his vigor, saying as he did so:

"You have urged me of late, Wilton, to take a journey, claiming that a change would benefit me. What more admirable opportunity than this? Think, too, of the pleasure of meeting the dearest friend of my youth, and of marching triumphantly down our valley, giving these rascally rebels the trouncing they so richly deserve!"

"In the meanwhile—" I began.

"In the meanwhile," said my father, catching my thought, and taking the words from my mouth, "David and Christina can look after everything here. We can give out that family matters call us to New York, slip away under the cover of night,

and our inquisitive neighbors who term themselves 'patriots' need never be the wiser until St. Leger's victorious forces come down upon them—though by that time their courage will no doubt have oozed out and they be swearing fealty to King George."

I saw how futile it was to make the slightest demur, so answered with the best grace I could feign:

"It shall be as you wish, sir. When shall we start?"

"We should hardly be in time for the Buck Island rendezvous," replied my father, "so we need not hasten. We can easily make Oswego in five days."

He moved toward the door of the small room he had occupied since my mother's death. His manner indicated that he still had something to tell me, and I wondered what should cause him to hesitate. At the door he turned, and casting a deprecating look at me said:

"You may as well know before we leave that there are to be Indians."

"Indians!" I echoed, but he was gone before I could speak further. He was fully aware of my opinion of the policy employed by the crown of enlisting the redskins in the conflict, for on this point I had been outspoken, however carefully I had veiled many of my other sentiments, and it was his desire to escape an outbreak on my part that led him to withdraw so hurriedly.

The atmosphere of the room seemed suddenly to oppress me. I seized my hat and strode out into the air. In the rear of the house the ground rose to a gentle eminence where three fine pine trees had been left standing when the place was cleared. Here I had constructed a rough but comfortable seat, and thither I now repaired. There was yet some time to elapse ere the supper hour, and I was glad of the opportunity for thought thus afforded me.

The sun was fully two hours high above the western hills, and as I sat beneath the pine trees the wide sweep of the valley lay before me like a great garden. A strip of woodland hid the houses of the settlement,

but a thin spiral of smoke indicated their location. It was upon this scene of pastoral peace that the forces of St. Leger and Sir John Johnson, with their attendant horde of savages, were about to descend. Though I had never myself been an eyewitness of an Indian raid there were plenty in the vicinity who knew but too well what it meant, and as I now recalled what I had heard from their lips I grew sick at heart. Such fighting did not mean war; it was sheer butchery. Could I consent to link my fortunes with men who seemed in my eyes little better than murderers? The suggestion was scarcely endurable. My father looked upon the employment of the Indians much in the same light as I did, but his loyalty to the king kept him silent. Should I take a decided stand, speak out my whole mind, and refuse to go, what then? A result still more harrowing than participation in the prospective invasion confronted me—my father's grief, his rage, and the sure effect on him consequent upon these emotions. At this juncture I bethought me of my promise to my mother, and henceforward there was no faltering. I looked duty unswervingly in the eyes, and called him brother, though truly he was a grim companion to take to one's bosom.

It may appear strange that my sentiments and those of my father differed so radically. This perhaps may be best accounted for by the fact that I had been separated from him during some of the most susceptible years of my youth, and had come under the influence of strong characters, men whose views were directly opposed to those which he held. The fortunes of my family had been somewhat checkered. My father was a younger son who had inherited considerable property from a maiden aunt. He had thus been able to follow his own wishes and marry young, indeed almost immediately on leaving the university. When ill health had forced him to give up his military career he had followed two of my mother's brothers to the colonies. Finding renewed vigor in the change of climate, he embarked in business in New

York and devoted himself with varying success to mercantile pursuits until the spring of 1772, when there came a sudden crash in the financial world. My father saved little from the general wreck save what he had been accustomed jestingly to refer to as his "plantation in the wilderness," a partially cleared tract of land to which he had taken a fancy while delayed for a day on a journey through the interior to Montreal, and which he had acquired for a nominal sum. To this, our present home, he had moved the summer following his business misfortunes.

At the time of my father's reverses I was about completing my first year at King's College, and one of my uncles, fancying he saw in me the making of a lawyer, generously offered to be responsible for the rest of my education. So I had remained behind when my parents turned their backs on civilization. During the three years and a half that elapsed before circumstances forced me to take permanent leave of New York I saw my father but once. This was the formative period of my life. My uncle was a man of but few words, yet he thought and felt deeply. His sympathies were strongly with the colonies when serious difficulties began to arise with the mother country, and though he never strove to influence me he did so unconsciously.

It was, however, my intimacy with Alexander Hamilton that had the greatest effect in molding my opinions. Hamilton was one of my fellow-students at King's College, and we were drawn toward one another at our first meeting. Although he was several years my junior he was vastly my superior mentally, and the way he grasped a subject was to me a matter of never-ceasing wonder and admiration. He, on the other hand, though full of nervous energy was lacking in physical strength, and often spoke with smiling envy of my prowess in all tests where muscular power and endurance were called into play. Especially was he enthusiastic over my skill with the saber, an exercise in which I had practised from early boyhood with my father, who had once been the champion fencer of his regi-

ment. When Hamilton became interested in the cause of the colonies he drew me headlong after him. Boy though he was at the time, and even more youthful in appearance than in actuality, his arguments seemed to me incontrovertible, as indeed they did a little later when I began to think for myself. I was by his side in the tea affair when Captain Chambers' chests were tumbled with such prompt ceremony into the waters of the harbor, and I was with him, and other students as well, the night the cannon were removed from the battery in face of the shotted guns of the war-ship *Asia*.

But my residence with my uncle and my intercourse with Hamilton were suddenly cut short by news of my mother's serious illness. This was in the autumn of 1775, soon after I had begun my law studies. I traveled with all haste into the country, to find that my mother had rallied, but was never likely to be in firm health again, if indeed she survived the winter. This fact made my return to New York impossible, so I settled down in our new home to care for my mother and be of what service I could in looking after affairs about the place. The open warfare which was now in progress between the United Colonies and Great Britain kept my father in a state of feverish excitement, and had it not been for my mother's precarious condition I am sure nothing would have prevented him from offering his services to the crown. As it was, living in a neighborhood where the Whig sentiment was pronounced, his unrestrained speech made him an object of dislike, if not of hatred.

The part I was forced to act was most distasteful to me. I made known my feelings to my mother, who, I found, sympathized with me, and counseled me most wisely in regard to my attitude toward my father, whose intense loyalty to the king she understood, and persuaded me was but natural. Though I did not change at heart, as time passed it grew more easy for me to dissimulate, and my father never had cause to suspect my real sentiments. It was entirely owing to my mother's advice and entreaties, however, that he and I came to

no bitter words during the months directly following my arrival. At the settlement, where I made few acquaintances, I passed among Whigs for a Whig-hater and among Tories as one of their own number, not through any expression on my part but because it was so well known where my father stood. There were but two persons besides my mother who were aware of my actual position.

My mother endured the winter far better than we had feared and we grew quite hopeful during the spring and summer, but with the dull and dark autumn days came a sudden change for the worse and she sank rapidly. During the last weeks of her life I was almost constantly at her side, and it was then that I promised her that whatever course my father might pursue in regard to the struggle after she was gone I would not desert him. Under no other circumstances could I, or would I, have given such a promise, yet situated as I was who will say that I should have acted otherwise? The entreaty in a dying mother's eyes is something no son possessing a spark of tenderness or love in his soul could resist.

It was mid-November when we buried my mother. The frost had made the bare ground as rigid as iron. There was not a breath of wind and all day long a flock of crows raised a raucous clamor in the pines behind the house. My father was completely broken with grief. Throughout my mother's illness he had refused to allow himself to consider what the end must be, and the final blow seemed to prostrate him quite as much as though it had been unexpected. The day following the burial he was seized with a severe chill; then a racking cough, a trouble from which he had for years been free, took hold upon him and would not be shaken off. It was well-nigh impossible to rouse him from the gloom into which he had fallen, and it certainly seemed as though fate was likely to press the cup of sorrow to my lips a second time. This, however, I was spared, but the effect of the awful depression and desolation of that winter was long in lifting from my spirits.

When my father began again to show an interest in the progress of the war it was like a faint rift in the brooding clouds. In April he went several times to the settlement, and received a few of his acquaintances among the Tories. Then he expressed some eagerness to regain his strength, and very soon it dawned upon me what was in his mind—flight to Canada and enlistment in the king's cause. The cough still clung to him, and in May an injudicious overexertion brought on a slight hemorrhage, but from this he quickly recovered. His intention became daily more clear, though when he hinted at it I made no effort to conceal my disapproval, never giving him occasion to think, however, that my sympathies in the struggle were opposed to his. But there had been no occurrence to precipitate action on his part until the information of the runner furnished the lacking pretext.

CHAPTER II.

WHAT HAPPED ON MUSTER NIGHT.

"WILTON," said my father, as we rose from the supper table, "Schroepel has a small *bateau* which would be just fitted for our journey. Would it not be well to secure it without delay?"

"If go we must," I replied, "I think it would."

My father paid no heed to the first part of my answer, for he continued,

"You could find Schroepel this evening, could you not?"

I nodded assent.

"Once we are sure of our boat," he proceeded, "we can make our other arrangements at our leisure."

After a brief discussion in regard to what price we ought to pay for the *bateau*, since it seemed best to buy it outright, I took up a stout walking-stick and set out for the cabin of the Dutch Tory, which stood not far from the river-bank.

I must confess that I started upon my errand with some misgivings. It was muster night at the settlement, and in order to reach my destination I was obliged to pass the parade-ground, and also Bellinger's

store, which was a general meeting-place after the drill was finished. An encounter with the patriot militiamen was little to my liking, for I knew some of them bore me no good will on account of the views which they assumed I held. It was not that I felt faint-hearted and feared personal violence, or cared a jot for any of the jibes they might fling at me, but I detested a brawl, and I was sure there were those who would ask nothing better than to involve me in one. Comforting myself with the thought that it was useless to borrow trouble, and trusting in fortune to see me through without any unpleasantness, I struck into a brisk pace, and was soon beyond the wood which hid the settlement from view.

Circumstances favored me, for when I drew near the fort and the parade-ground I found the drill was in full swing. Quite a crowd had assembled to witness the maneuvers, which were in charge of one of the officers from the regular troops stationed at the fort, and I slipped by unnoticed. My spirits now rose, for I reflected that I would wait until after dusk had fallen before returning, thus lessening the chance of a disagreeable encounter.

I did not find Schroepel at his cabin, and sat long in the gathering twilight waiting for him. As time elapsed and he did not come I grew nervous, for I was anxious to take advantage of the darkness before the moon rose. Still there was no sign of him, and before he finally appeared the moon was peeping above the hilltops. It did not take us long to come to an agreement in regard to the *bateau*, and I left him with the understanding that he was to conceal the boat among some willows at the mouth of a creek about a quarter of a mile up the river, where we could load her secretly and at our convenience.

Thus far I had every cause to congratulate myself, and in spite of the fact that the moonlight seemed unusually brilliant I turned homeward with a springing step. As I approached the settlement I began to encounter military men with shouldered muskets. Many of them did not recognize

me and those who did gave me a surly greeting. When I drew near Bellinger's store I saw several groups by the roadside, but I managed to get by them without exciting comment. If I could pass Bellinger's without having my progress arrested I knew I had nothing further to fear.

I might have taken to the fields where a fork leading up the valley joined the main road, but there was a nasty bit of marsh to cross if I did this, and furthermore, while I desired to avoid being noticed, I did not wish to play the part of a coward.

Seated upon the steps of the store were perhaps a dozen men, laughing and badgering one another, while half as many in a knot opposite were engaged in more serious conversation. The road was quite wide, and just before reaching the two groups I left the foot-path and struck into the center of the street. This was doubtless a foolish move, for I might have slipped past those who were conferring earnestly without attracting their attention, and those opposite could hardly, at that distance, have detected who I was. However, my evident desire to escape recognition drew upon me the eyes of the latter. I realized this, and strove to appear wholly unconcerned, restraining a natural impulse to quicken my stride. I had nearly run the gauntlet when some one on the side of Bellinger's cried out:

"A Tory!"

Should I take to my heels? I acknowledge the thought entered my head, and had I acted without an instant's hesitation I doubt not I could have got off without difficulty, for the way seemed clear, I should have had a fair start, and it took a man of no mean endurance to catch me in those days. But I put the thought of flight out of my mind, and held to the same pace as before, without noticing the outcry. Other voices immediately caught up the shout and then two men from the smaller group ran toward me, stretching out their muskets with the intention of barring my way. I managed to elude them only to be confronted by several from Bellinger's.

"I have no quarrel with you, gentlemen,"

I said pleasantly; "be kind enough to let me pass on."

To my request there was no answer. One fellow jostled me and then another. I kept my temper, however, making my way among them, though not without considerable trouble, to the foot-path. Here I was pushed and shoved amid scoffs and jeers, a part of the abuse being in German, which was quite as common as English at the settlement. At last I could endure their insults no longer, and seeing a good opportunity I suddenly knocked a great hulking lout from in front of me and sprang into the angle made by the jutting wing of an old log cabin. Here I faced my tormentors, gripping my walking-stick menacingly. For a moment they seemed not to know what to make of my unexpected action. When they had intercepted me there had been no concerted plan among them, and probably no intention beyond a thought to annoy me. Now, however, when they recovered from their surprise, there were suggestions in plenty.

"Wig him!" yelled one.

"A rail for him!" called another.

"Duck him! duck him!" cried a third, at which there was a storm of approval, and there rose a great shout of, "To the river! to the river!"

I set my teeth together and made up my mind that there should be some broken heads before they laid hands upon me, although I realized that, if attacked, I must soon be overpowered. My position was not without its advantages, however, inasmuch as my assailants all stood in the moonlight while I was in the shadow. The cries continued, and I could see that those nearest me were preparing for a sudden rush, when a newcomer pushed his way to the front and demanded in a tone of some authority:

"What's all this uproar about?"

"We've caged a Tory and we're going to duck him," some one answered.

He turned and peered into the obscurity where I stood, starting back as he recognized my face. It was John Demooth, a lieutenant in the militia, my only intimate

friend at the settlement, one who knew and respected my position. If any one could rescue me from my present predicament it was he.

"You, Aubrey!" he said in surprise. I noted, too, that there was an unusual touch of gravity in his voice.

Suddenly he faced those about him.

"Who says this man's a Tory?" he exclaimed. "Which one of you has ever heard him utter Tory sentiments?"

There was a murmur, but no direct response.

"He's his father's son, isn't he?" called a voice at the edge of the crowd, and the sally was greeted by a hilarious outburst.

"Let him cheer for General Washington if he wants to save his hide from a wetting," cried one, and the suggestion seemed to meet with universal approbation.

"Yes, let him cheer," echoed many.

Even had there not been my father to consider (and how swiftly would the news have been carried to his ears had I yielded to their demands!) I think nothing under heaven would have wrung the cheers from me at that moment, so thoroughly was my obstinacy aroused, though under some circumstances it would have given me the greatest pleasure to shout for General Washington, who was ever in my eyes the perfection of a gentleman and a soldier.

What would have occurred now I cannot conjecture, had not a more personal turn been given to the affair by the appearance of Heinrich Hauff upon the scene.

Between Hauff and myself there was bad blood. At the house of the Demooths, one winter evening six months earlier, a chance introduction had made me acquainted with Hauff's half-sister. I had been charmed by her naive manner, her freshness as of the wild flower, her modest beauty, and had sought every occasion that offered to see more of her. I discovered that she came often to visit Miss Demooth, and frequently contrived to time my calls so that we met beneath my friend's hospitable roof. From Margaret Wells, for such was the name of this frontier blossom, I gradually learned her family history. Her mother, a German

woman of gentle birth, had married an impecunious nobleman who had been driven by stress of circumstances to seek his fortune in America, drifting to the settlement with others of his countrymen. This man was Hauff's father. Two years after the death of her first husband Margaret's mother had married again, her second choice being a roving Englishman named Wells whom fate had cast at her door sick with a fever. Left again a widow she had since managed with the assistance of her son, at the time of his stepfather's death a stalwart youth of nineteen, to carry on their small estate.

Young Hauff, now twenty-seven, was two years my senior. He was dark, massively built, at heart a capital fellow, but such a rabid Tory-hater that he often allowed his feelings to get the better of his good sense. When, at Margaret's invitation, I had called upon her one evening late in the winter, I was politely received by her mother, who had a most lovable nature, but met so chilling a reception from her brother that I mentally resolved it would be long before he had another occasion to treat me so rudely. Encountering him a few days later, he told me plainly that I need not repeat my visit, and that he should resent any of my further attentions to his sister. Fearing that an open quarrel might put an end to all intercourse between myself and Margaret, I pocketed my pride and made him an evasive yet courteous answer.

This episode instead of checking the growing intimacy between Miss Wells and myself tended rather to increase it. She was a girl of spirit, and naturally resented what she deemed her brother's unwarranted interference. We continued to meet at the Demooth's, and I soon knew her well enough to feel that I could confide to her the secret of my present attitude in regard to the struggle that was in progress. Not long afterward I seized upon a happy occasion to reveal to her something that was much nearer to my heart. I cannot describe the joy, not unmixed with surprise, that was mine to find myself suddenly her accepted lover. However, the

harmony to which earth just then seemed attuned had for us both its discords. Until there was some decisive turn in the conflict our love must be kept concealed. Her brother and my father had to be reckoned with.

Two months passed before I again met Hauff face to face. One afternoon in mid-June, as I was returning from an excursion on horseback down the river road, I came upon him unexpectedly by the wayside talking with a settler whose house stood not far distant. His brow contracted ominously when he saw me, and he moved toward me with so angry an air that I half expected he would attempt to drag me from my horse. He offered me no violence, however, but said, his voice trembling with passion, yet so low that the other could not catch his words:

"I hear, you damned Tory cur, that you have paid no heed to my warning of last winter. Bear in mind, my fine gentleman, there'll be a day of reckoning, and that soon."

This uttered he turned his back upon me, and I rode on without replying.

Now as the crowd made way for him and he confronted me I recalled his threat of two weeks previous, and realized that however grave the situation had been before his arrival his presence had made it infinitely more serious. Cheers for General Washington, provided I were willing to give them, would hardly satisfy him.

"Caught like the rat you are!" he cried, in a most insulting way.

Demooth endeavored to intervene, but Hauff thrust him aside, saying as he did so:

"What! are you turned Tory, John Demooth?"

Seeing Hauff's disposal to deal with me single-handed, the crowd drew back and we were left glaring at each other.

"Will you come out of your hole and take a thrashing like a man, or stay there and take it like a rat?" he demanded.

"Do you mean that you wish to fight me?"

"You've hit it!"

I threw down my walking-stick and strode toward him. He had no arms, nor had I,

and I knew that he meant a fight with bare fists.

"Choose your own place," I said calmly. "I am ready."

I saw my cool manner of accepting his proposal somewhat took aback many of my assailants, and Hauff himself could not conceal his surprise. In reality it was no special evidence of bravery on my part, but the easiest way out of what had become a most embarrassing situation. Hauff was heavier and stronger than I, but I had agility and greater length of arm on my side. He was evidently confident that he was about to inflict a severe chastisement upon me, yet I did not fear him in the least.

The place which he selected for our encounter was a grassy plot in the street almost directly in front of Bellinger's store. The night was so warm that I had thrown on only a loose jacket before leaving home; this I now handed to John Demooth, who had joined me, and stood ready to meet my opponent. Hauff divested himself of his rough working coat, and bared his arms, on which the muscles were tensely knotted. About us the men formed a broken ring.

My safety depended upon my preventing my antagonist from closing with me. If at the outset he got me into his clutches I knew I should be at his mercy. For some moments I managed adroitly to evade his fierce attack, assuming entirely a defensive attitude. Soon his rising anger began to tell in my favor. Taking it for granted that I did not dare act on the aggressive, he grew reckless, and once all but overwhelmed me; then I suddenly changed my tactics, and let him see by a swift blow under the chin that I was not disposed to remain entirely passive. I heard his teeth rattle, and he sprang quickly to one side as though he expected me to follow up the attack. It was then that I saw my opportunity. Had I been pitted against another I might have hesitated, but this man had treated me most shamefully, had needlessly insulted me, and I felt not an atom of compunction in taking any and every advantage of him.

An unknown hand a moment before had

struck up a blaze in a flashing lantern that hung above the store doorway. I realized that if its rays fell full upon the face the eyes must be, for an instant, dazed. Swiftly shifting my position, before Hauff suspected my intention I had him looking toward the flaring glow. Then I sprang at him. Feinting, to confuse him still further, I got by his guard, and fetched him such a swinging buffet behind the ear that he went down an almost dead weight, his head striking upon a rock half concealed by the grass. He strove to rise, but sank back gasping. In a breath half a dozen or more of those about us were at his side. De-mooth seized my arm, dragged me aside, forced my jacket into my hands, and said, as he pushed me from him:

"Now's your chance! Be off!"

I needed no second bidding. The words had scarcely left his lips before I was away, so I had a good start before my flight was observed. There was an outcry, but little pretense of pursuit, so I halted, when I had put half a hundred yards between myself and the scene of my victory, to watch Hauff, who had got upon his feet, stagger toward Bellinger's supported by two of his companions.

It was in vain that I strove to compose my appearance so as not to attract my father's attention. He had become uneasy at my long delay, and the moment I entered the dining-room, where we commonly sat in the evening, he scanned me narrowly while questions and exclamations of astonishment leaped from his lips. I took one of the candles from the table and examined my face in the glass. Then I was not surprised at my father's expressions of amazement. There was a bruise upon my forehead, my cheek was scratched, and there was an unnatural flush upon my countenance which showed that I had been under some strong physical strain.

Much as I disliked to do so, knowing how my father's rage was likely to be aroused, I perceived there was no other way than to tell him the whole story. Accordingly I seated myself and rehearsed the occurrences of the evening. Fortu-

nately he did not question me in regard to Hauff's reason for wishing to fight, or I might have found it difficult to give a satisfactory reply and still not reveal my secret. He took the whole thing much more calmly than I had anticipated, remarking pointedly that I must now see the impossibility of remaining much longer in the neighborhood, a conclusion in which I was forced to agree with him.

We had just begun to discuss plans for our departure when we heard hurried steps without, the door at the side was thrown open, and David sprang into the room. He was almost breathless, and pale with fright.

"Quick!" he gasped, "by the back of the house! Run for the cabin in the woods. They are coming from the settlement, a score or more, and they swear they will hunt you out of the country."

I saw by David's manner that there was not an instant to lose. Catching up a blanket and my father's old army cloak, and thrusting a pair of pistols into my pockets, I hastened my bewildered and enraged father into the kitchen and toward the rear door of the house. David called after us, as we ran in the direction of the clump of pines, that he would keep the Whigs off awhile and then let them see that we had gone. The door closed, and we heard the bar drop into its place. While we paused in the shadow of the trees to get breath we saw plainly, in the moonlight, three forms appear suddenly at one corner of the house, and we knew that in another moment the place would be surrounded.

CHAPTER III.

THE TRYST.

HALF a mile back among the hills, reached by a partially overgrown trail, stood a small cabin that had been used ten years previous by men engaged in getting out logs. Thither we now bent our steps. My encounter with Hauff had brought matters to an unexpected pass. It was clear that we must start Oswego-ward at the earliest possible opportunity, and in the meanwhile it seemed best that we should

remain in concealment. The cabin in the forest would afford an admirable hiding-place. It was known to very few at the settlement, and we should feel perfectly safe in tarrying there until the necessary arrangements for our departure were made.

The moon rode high, and we had but little difficulty in keeping to the pathway. In open spaces the bracken was knee deep, and we were soon drenched with dew. The night was so warm, however, that I had no fear that any ill effect would come to my father from the wetting. Now that he had recovered from his indignation at the boldness of the Whigs he took everything wonderfully well, and quite entered into the spirit of the adventure.

"Wait a few weeks, Wilton," he said as we paused a moment after crossing a glade, "and we'll repay them for this evening call."

After my experience it is hardly to be wondered that I caught some of his spirit, and replied to him that they richly deserved whatever was in store for them. However much I might be in sympathy with their side in the public quarrel, I could not excuse them for their treatment of me that night, though at heart I knew it was my father's outspokenness that had brought the persecution upon me.

Reaching the cabin, we began clearing it of the fir boughs left by the last occupants. This task accomplished we fell to cutting some fresh branches, and soon had a great fragrant pile spread in one corner. Then we sat down upon the threshold in the moonlight to await David, for we knew that he would slip away to us as soon as our troublesome callers had taken themselves off. While David by no means sympathized with my father's views he was devotedly attached to him. Soon after my father's removal from New York to the frontier, finding David and his wife in painfully straitened circumstances he had done them a great kindness. Since that time the old German had been loud in his expression of gratitude. His coming to take charge of our estate proved a blessing in many ways. What we should have done without him in the present predicament it

would be difficult to conjecture. An acknowledged Whig himself, his devotion was the more remarkable.

It must have been fully an hour before we heard, among the other noises of the night, David's clear whistle come floating up the trail. A few moments later the faithful fellow appeared at the edge of the clearing, puffing under a roll of blankets and a sack of eatables. We welcomed him warmly, and bade him, as soon as he caught his breath, enlighten us in regard to his share in the events of the evening. Presently we learned his story.

About dusk he had strolled down to the settlement, and was returning from a prolonged chat with some of his acquaintances when he was attracted to Bellinger's by the hubbub in that vicinity. Arriving soon after my flight, he found Hauff, who had recovered, haranguing a crowd from the steps of the store. A few words sufficed to show David what was likely to be the outcome of the man's exhortations, and he made off as fast as might be to give us warning. His running powers, however, were poor, and the turbulent Whigs, although they were not aware of it, pressed him quite closely before he reached the house. Indeed, had it not been for the meadow path, of the existence of which they were ignorant, they might have overtaken him.

After our escape they had thundered at the doors, demanding instant admission, a demand which David was slow to grant. He parleyed with them, and assured them that we had left the house without confiding to him our intentions. Though they knew him for a good Whig, they were disposed to question his word, and insisted on searching the place for themselves. Finally he admitted them and they ransacked room after room, doing considerable damage in their chagrin at not finding us and leaving with threats of making a public example of us if we were so bold as to return. Just what this meant David had been unable to gather.

The recital finished, my father announced our intention of turning our steps toward

Oswego. While our good friend deplored our decision, and doubted the necessity for such a move, saying in a day or two the hotheads would have cooled their tempers, he readily consented to aid us in our preparations. It was then agreed that David and I should begin to provision the boat on the following night. In the meanwhile I proposed to venture through the woods to Thompson's (a Tory house where there were several men) in search of recruits. At our request David consented to see Schroepel on the following day with the purpose of persuading him to join us. Schroepel would prove a most valuable acquisition, as he was familiar with the route to Oswego and was an excellent waterman. We all thought that when he heard of the evening's happenings he might be glad of an opportunity of removing himself from the danger of a like visitation. We were careful in this conference with David to let fall no word in regard to St. Leger or the baronet and their plans.

In spite of our enforced exile the next five days passed rapidly. Schroepel's co-operation was secured, while the two Thompson boys swelled our party to the desired number. The boat was provisioned and a rendezvous arranged for the night of the 7th. On the morning of the day previous I entrusted David with a missive to John Demooth bidding him be on the lookout for me an hour after nightfall. I also besought him to see Margaret and tell her that I would be in hiding in the shrubbery at the foot of her mother's garden as near as might be to half past nine. I realized that I was running great risks in making this venture, for David had informed me that Hauff was on the alert, the impression prevailing among the Whigs that we were concealed in the vicinity. One thing, however, I was determined upon—go Oswego-ward I would not without attempting to see Margaret and without endeavoring to confide to my friend Demooth the danger that menaced the settlement and valley.

For the first time since our sojourn in the cabin the hours dragged wearily. Since we had taken up our primitive quarters my

father had borne all discomforts with a patience hardly characteristic of him, and now while I moved uneasily about the clearing, flicking off with a birch goad the fern tops and half-ripened berries, he paced calmly up and down in the shade, his features wholly unruffled.

Much to my relief the sky became overcast as evening drew on. About an hour after our frugal supper, under the pretext of seeing David and taking counsel with him I set out down the trail. In parting from my father I bade him not be alarmed if I did not return until late, for another trip to the boat might prove necessary in case anything had been overlooked. The heavens threatened rain and the shadows deepened more swiftly than usual. By the time I reached the edge of the forest it was quite dusk. At the house David was on the watch for my coming. Having learned that my message had been delivered to Demooth, and that there were, so far as David was aware, no new developments at the settlement, I told him to come to the cabin on the morrow for a final consultation, and hastily retraced my steps to the verge of the woodland.

My path now led me southward along the margin of the cleared land in the direction of a stream called by the Indians the Slanting Waters. Approaching this stream, I found myself below the settlement. Here I changed my course and following the trend of a snake fence soon reached the property of the Demooths. As I neared the out-buildings of the farmstead I heard the sound of horses' hoofs and the murmur of voices. Although there was a strange brightness in the upper air where the moonlight lit up a rift in the massing vapors, everything below was indistinct, so I slipped without fear along the lane, past the cow sheds, and peered through the bars of the great gate into the yard surrounding the house. As I did so a door swung back, and in the fan of light emitted I saw three men dismounting from their horses. In the sturdy figure of one I recognized the brigadier Nicholas Herkimer. The elder Demooth, lantern in hand, came out to meet them, and I then discovered half a dozen other horses

picketed near. I had stumbled upon a meeting of some of the Whig leaders.

Clearly there was no chance of seeing my friend, so I beat a hasty retreat into the fields, devoutly hoping that Hauff made one of the company. Yet I knew this was hardly likely. The presence of General Herkimer indicated that it was a gathering of older and wiser heads.

As I turned my steps toward the house of my sweetheart I began to wonder why John Demooth had not warned me of this meeting, and could only conclude that he had been kept in ignorance of it until too late to get me word. If I had the good fortune to see Margaret I resolved to confide in her the intentions of the invaders and bid her transmit the information to John Demooth.

I approached the Hauff place—the estate still bore the name of the original occupant—with the greatest caution. Making a wide detour I crept toward the shrubbery, where I intended to conceal myself with all the stealth of an Indian. Once before Margaret and I had met here, and the ground was hence not wholly unfamiliar. A pathway led from the house to the foot of the garden, where a stone stile gave access to a marshy meadow. Beyond the meadow flowed the Slanting Waters.

Crouching close to the ground I followed the line of a stone wall until I came to the stile. Here I paused to reconnoiter. The frogs were in full chorus, and far away riverward a plover was plaintively crying. Near me there was no sound—not a violin note from a katydid or cricket—a fact that aroused my suspicions. Reminding myself that these familiar noises are often wanting when a storm is imminent I climbed softly over the stile and slid into the bushes on one side of the pathway. As I did so I fancied I detected a rustle among the shrubbery not far distant, but hearing nothing further I concluded my imagination had tricked me. My senses were now painfully alert, and for half an hour I lay in motionless suspense. Once a twig snapped, and I thought a foe was upon me. At last I caught the low click of a latch, and a

hinge creaked faintly. Raising myself upon my knee I vainly strove to pierce the gloom. My excitement was such that every nook of air about me seemed suddenly astir. Yet I had no fear, so intent was I upon getting sight of the form that I hoped every instant would take shape in the darkness. There was a footfall, another, and another, light, fleet, unmistakably feminine. I started to my feet and stepped out upon the pathway. The footfalls ceased.

"Wilton!" called a suppressed voice apprehensively.

"Margaret!" I said, and then I had the dear girl in my arms. She was all atremble, and cried out as she responded to my caress:

"You musn't stop a moment! Heinrich suspects you are coming, for he saw John speaking with me this morning and has watched me ever since."

"Where is your brother?" I asked, drawing her toward the stile.

"I don't know where he may be now. I left him with my mother a few moments ago, saying I was going to my room; then I stole down the rear stairs and out at the shed door."

Hardly had she spoken when there was a shrill whistle from behind the stile, not more than a dozen feet from where we stood. Margaret clutched my arm as she strove to suppress a cry of terror. Hauff's voice in the direction of the house replied to the whistle, and there was the crash of a heavy body plunging through the bushes on our right. It was no time for lingering farewells, but I gave my beloved one lover's kiss, whispering as I did so:

"Good-by for a little. I'm off for Oswego to-morrow. They sha'n't catch me!"

Then I pushed her from me, and she ran toward the house as though to intercept her brother.

As she did so a man sprang down from the stile. The plunging form in the bushes was almost upon me, and I knew Hauff was rapidly approaching along the pathway. I saw that I was in desperate straits, and there was no time to debate which way I should fly. On the left of the garden was a

dry ditch, beyond which was a row of brambles flanked in turn by high paling. Toward these obstructions I made a bold dash, two of my pursuers hot after me. I took the ditch at a flying leap, landed fairly, but floundered among the briers. Recovering myself I gripped the top of the paling just as the feet of one of the men struck the earth behind me. My heart sank, yet I vaulted with mad energy. A thorny withere tore a great rent in my breeches, and my heels came in contact with a pair of arms, so instead of wholly clearing the obstruction I struck the top of it, and sprawled, bruised and half breathless, in the tall grass on the other side. To my pursuers the fence proved a troublesome obstacle, so I had a few seconds in which to recover myself, and as the first of them cleared the barrier I made off as fast as my legs would carry me in the direction of the Slanting Waters.

The field in which I found myself was similar to that in the rear of the garden—a meadow, marshy and uneven. At any moment I might stumble into a bog hole, in which case I could hardly avoid falling into the hands of Hauff and his companions, who, now little more than twenty yards distant, were straining every nerve to overtake me. My bruises proved troublesome, and I soon realized that I was losing ground. This discovery incited me to renewed exertion, and presently I forgot my lameness and had the satisfaction of knowing that I was drawing ahead again. It was at this stage of my flight that I encountered the first bit of marshy land. Trusting to fortune I crossed it by a series of flying leaps, considerably widening the gap between myself and those who were in chase. My advantage was only temporary, however, for I was well-nigh stuck shortly afterward in another miry depression. But Hauff's exclamation, "We've got him!" acted as a spur, and once on firm ground the proximity of the stream, as revealed by the dark line of trees, gave me hope.

At this juncture luck was certainly with me. I came upon the Slanting Waters at an opening in the dense foliage that fringed it, and at a spot where the bank, in most

places precipitous or abruptly shelving, sloped gently. The current swept by, swift and deep, swollen by severe thunder-storms in the upland wilderness which the creek drained. Indeed at this point—a quarter of a mile from where it debouched into the Mohawk—the stream had the appearance of a river. The water was washing high upon the stones beyond a four-foot strip of sand. The instant my feet came in contact with the cobbles an idea that missed little of being an inspiration flashed into my brain. I knew my three pursuers must be within hearing, so I seized and pitched several large stones, one quickly after the other, into the water. The effect produced was that of some one plunging into the stream. Then I ran a few steps along the sand to where the bank began to rise sharply, and wormed myself under the overhanging roots and earth. Here I discovered a dry cavity worn by the action of the ice in some springtime freshet—a most secure hiding-place.

Hardly had I ensconced myself before there was a rush of feet near by.

"Curse him! he's taken to the water," cried the first comer.

"Are you sure?" said Hauff, who now came panting up.

"Sure! Didn't you hear him leap in?"

"I did!" exclaimed the third of my pursuers.

They hurried past my place of concealment, and I knew they were peering out into the darkness, trying to catch a glimpse of me.

"Do you see anything?" Hauff asked.

"I thought I did, but it's a log," replied the one addressed. "It's a pity we haven't a flint."

This remark gave me a thrill of relief. My greatest fear had been that they would have the means of striking a light.

And now there happened one of the weirdest things that has come under my cognizance. Seemingly out of the stream not far distant, where there was a wide bend, there rose an agonizing cry that died away into a gurgling moan. It must have been the sound made by an animal or

swamp-bird in distress, and have proceeded from the woodland beyond the Slanting Waters, but to me, and to the three men on the shore, it was like the despairing wail of some human creature.

"God!" shouted Hauff, "he's got into the eddies yonder, and is drowning!"

I knew by the silence that followed that they were listening intently, and strained my ears to catch a repetition of the cry, but none came.

"He's done for!" said one of the other two presently. "That's an ugly spot over there. I've often noticed it: steep bank, and a mighty deep hole under it."

"Well, I'd no wish to drive the fellow to his death," remarked Hauff, "though he was a Tory."

(To be continued.)

They lingered a few moments, listening, and saying little. Finally I heard them climb the bank, and then the only audible noise was the hoarse swash of the current. They thought me drowned, that was clear, and while Hauff might, in a way, regret that he had been indirectly the means of my end, he would not fail to report my fate to Margaret. I was well content to remain dead for the present so far as Hauff and most of the settlement Whigs were concerned, but the knowledge that my beloved would mourn for me caused me for a space no little disturbance of mind. Then it came to me that I could assure her of my safety through David and John Demooth, and with a light heart I started for the cabin through the fine rain now falling.

THE BICYCLE IN THE BAVARIAN ARMY.

BY U. K.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE GERMAN "URDER LAND UND MERR."

WHETHER a bicycle corps in warfare would be advantageous for actual service is a question which is being agitated in armies more than ever before. Let a complete corps of ten thousand and more men move forward on bicycles and thus mounted demonstrate the problem. Those bitterly opposed to all military innovations, such as the use of balloons, of pigeon carriers, of war dogs, etc., of course rudely object to this solution of the infantry question, declaring that this, like all other experiments, is expensive and profitless, just as the French protested against the notorious use of the grape-shot before the great war.

It is supposable that there is a possibility of arriving at the truth in the matter and therefore it is to the advantage of military leaders that the decision on the question of the practicability and extent of utilizing the bicycle in the infantry divisions shall be based on experiments made in actual service.

Last year such experiments were made in the French and in the Austrian Armies.

In the German Army Count Waldersee, commanding general of the Ninth Prussian Army Corps in the maneuvers of last year first organized a bicycle troop equipped with weapons and gave it a stated task.

Yet all these experiments suffered from this one condition: the divisions sometimes were made up of wheelmen having bicycles of different makes and qualities, so that there was lacking a uniformity in the speed and manipulation of the machines.

In order to decide the questions as to the quality of military bicycles suitable for warfare, and as to pneumatic or padded tires, an experiment to last a day and a night was planned to take place in May, 1896, at Munich to test the various makes of wheels. The distance traversed was about six hundred and twenty-one miles, or the equivalent of the length of the Rhine River from Lake Constance to the German Ocean. When the wheelmen came to certain stations picked military wheelmen relieved them. The entire expedition was under the control of nine officers. The actual trial, inter-

rupted only to change riders and to adjust the machines, lasted eighty-one hours, that is, three days and nine hours, but it was made over a notably poor road and in a pouring rain from beginning to end.

A course of drill in the knowledge of the machines during and after the journey was given in November of a year ago. This drill was conducted by twelve officers and twenty-four under officers, all highly skilled in bicycle craft. Those appointed to be instructors were to follow out in the army instructions gained in the course. The exercises consisted of instruction indoors and excursions, made by day and night, in which the dissecting and putting together of the machine became practical work.

In the summer following these preparations as an experiment a bicycle detachment was formed for manipulation in tactical covering. The detachment consisted of four officers, fifty-four under officers, and troops chosen especially from the entire First Bavarian Army Corps, one army physician, and one hospital assistant, all of them expert wheelmen. The management was entrusted to the captain and battery chief of the Third Bavarian Field Artillery Regiment, who also had to follow the above-mentioned trial trip and course of instruction.

The clothing, equipment, and weapons of the troops consisted of raincoats, *litewka*, cloth trousers, with gaiters, laced shoes, cloaks, canteens, bread bags, soldiers' knapsacks, waist belts with side-arms and pockets, carbines, and forty cartridges each.

The first exercises of the detachment consisted in rides on the streets and roads in columns by twos and ones, and on meadow

and heath land in lines abreast. Later exercises aimed to make the rider adroit and speedy when beyond the streets, on foot-paths, for instance, or boundary markers, forest paths, railroad banks, and the like. An object of special instruction was the repulse of a cavalry patrol by a single wheelman and the repulse of a cavalry onset by a detachment of wheelmen.

After these preliminary exercises tactical problems were solved, in which usually the opposing troops and positions were marked out. Such exercises included finding out about an enemy's defenses or positions, or the approach of an enemy, the occupation of a defile lying far in advance, the protection of an important station or railroad center against a hostile cavalry onset, the destruction of railroad and telegraph lines, blowing up of bridges, seizure of the enemy's baggage and artillery, harassing the enemy's outposts and bivouacs, and so on.

While the performance of these tasks by cavalry require two or three times as many riders as when they are done by wheelmen, cavalymen are further handicapped by great distance and by the treacherous dust raised by the motion of the horses, so that in most cases cavalry expeditions cannot count on certain success. On the other hand experiments have demonstrated in all certainty that bicycle detachments—from eighty to a hundred men strong—can be relied on every time for such tasks and are in condition to fire their guns even when weather and roads are very unfavorable. The great condition to this success is that they be organized and drilled as special divisions and be equipped with the best pneumatic tires and carbines.



THE ACTIVE REAR-ADMIRALS OF THE UNITED STATES NAVY.

BY EUGENE L. DIDIER.

FROM the time when Captain John Barry first raised the stars and stripes over an American man-of-war the United States Navy has always maintained the honor of that flag on every sea. The daring exploits of John Paul Jones during the Revolutionary War attracted the attention of the civilized world. When American commerce was threatened by the sea robbers of Tripoli our navy made them respect our flag by giving them a taste of American valor. In the War of 1812 most of the glory was won by the navy, which boldly and successfully competed with England for the supremacy of the seas. The brilliant achievements of Hull, Decatur, Bainbridge, Perry, Macdonough, Porter, recall some of the most glorious actions of that war. In the Mexican War our navy was distinguished wherever there was an opportunity; and it should never be forgotten that an American fleet under Commodore Stockton shared with the American army under Colonel Fremont the glory of adding California to our cluster of states.

In the Civil War the active cooperation of the navy was acknowledged by every commander in the field, felt by every city on the southern coast, and on every river in

the interior of the southern land. Since that gigantic struggle the American Navy has, fortunately, had no occasion to test the bravery of its officers and men, but it can be depended upon in the future as in the past to uphold the honor and glory of the American name.

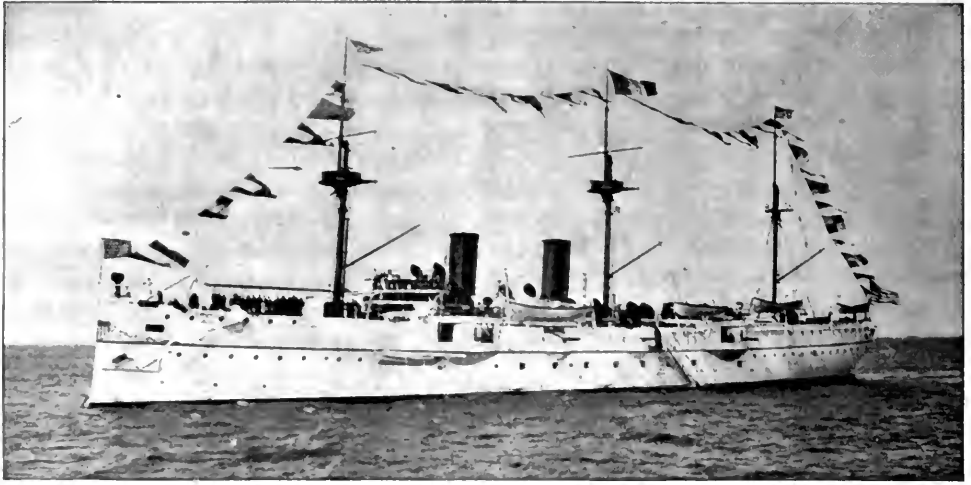
All the rear-admirals mentioned in this article have been in the service more than forty-five years, passing through all the grades, from midshipman to their present position, which is the highest now known in our navy. They have seen service in every portion of the world; their lives have been crowded with interesting and exciting adventures and a wide and varied experi-



REAR-ADMIRAL FRANCIS M. RAMSAY, U. S. N.

ence. They were all more or less actively engaged during the Civil War, and having served their country long and faithfully have been deservedly promoted to their present high rank.

During the one hundred and twenty years since the formation of the United States Navy there have been only two admirals and two vice-admirals. Farragut was made a full admiral in 1866 and Porter a vice-admiral, as a reward for their eminent services in the Civil War. When Admiral Farragut died, in 1870, Admiral Porter was advanced to the grade of full admiral, and



U. S. S. SAN FRANCISCO.

Flag-ship of the European Station.

Admiral Rowan became vice-admiral. On the death of these two officers the grades became extinct, and now the ranking officer of the navy is the senior rear-admiral on the active list. It may be mentioned that the admirals and vice-admirals had no more power than the present senior rear-admiral.

George Brown, the present senior rear-admiral of the United States Navy, was born in Indiana on June 9, 1835, and was appointed midshipman from that state on February 5, 1849. He saw service on the frigates *Cumberland* and *St. Lawrence*, and on June 2, 1856, was made lieutenant. During the next four years he served on the Brazilian and African Squadrons. In 1861 he was transferred to the *Octorora*, the flag-ship of Commodore Porter's mortar-boat flotilla. Lieutenant Brown was with Farragut in his dangerous ascent of the Mississippi and took part in the first attack upon Vicksburg, in 1862, and was highly commended for his conduct on that occasion.

On July 16, 1862, he was promoted lieutenant-commander and placed in command of the *Indianola* ironclad of the Mississippi Squadron. On February 24, 1863, a desperate fight took place between the *Indianola* and four Confederate gunboats. After an engagement of one hour and twenty-seven minutes the *Indianola* surrendered, her commander being severely wounded, and his

ship in a sinking condition. Having been exchanged after four months, Lieutenant-commander Brown was assigned to the steam gunboat *Itasca*, of the Western Gulf Blockading Squadron, participating in the action of August 5, 1864, in Mobile Bay, in the naval operations against Spanish Fort, and in the defense of Mobile in March and April, 1865. On July 25, 1866, he was raised to the rank of commander, and stationed at Washington. On April 25, 1877, he was promoted captain, and from 1878 to 1888 commanded the United States steamer *Alaska* on the Pacific Station, served as lighthouse inspector from 1881 to 1884, and was promoted to the rank of commodore September 4, 1887. Admiral Brown writes:

From January, 1890, to January, 1893, I was an acting rear-admiral and commander-in-chief of the Pacific Station. President Harrison's annual message of December, 1892, refers to my services in Chili and approves every act of mine. January, 1893, to July, 1893, I was awaiting orders; since July, 1893, I have been in command of the Norfolk Navy Yard and Station. I was promoted to rear-admiral September 27, 1893.

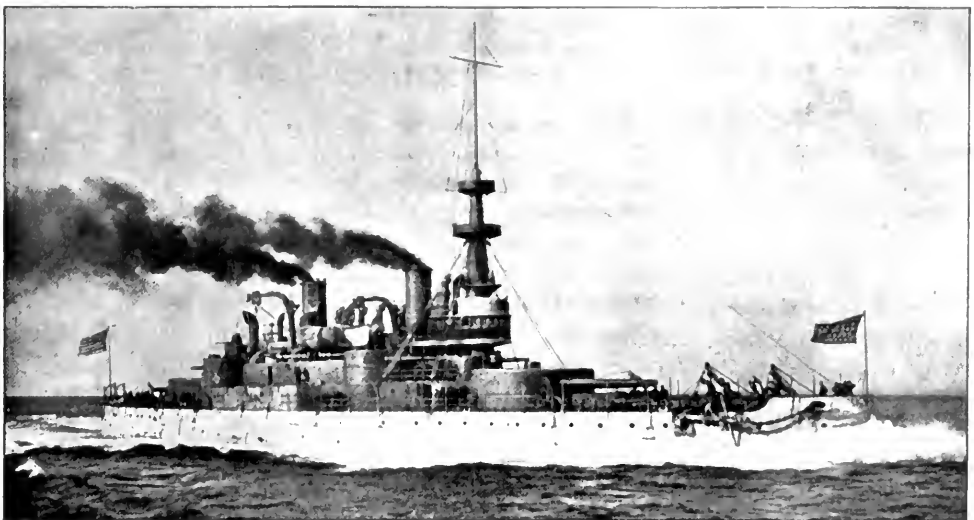
Admiral John G. Walker was born in Hillsborough, N. H., March 20, 1835. He graduated at the United States Naval Academy in 1856, and was made lieutenant on January 23, 1858. During the Civil War he served first on the Atlantic coast block-

ade and with the Western Gulf Blockading Squadron. He took part in the passage of Forts Jackson and St. Philip, and in the capture of New Orleans. Lieutenant Walker was one of the most successful young naval officers whom Admiral Porter gathered around him on the Mississippi. The record of this command was one of constant fighting with enemies—seen and unseen—with the batteries, torpedoes, and guerrilla sharpshooters. In this fighting Lieutenant Walker commanded sometimes a single ship and sometimes a flotilla on detached service. At Arkansas Post he bore the brunt of the engagement, running the *DeKalb* close into the fort and beating down the enemy's fire by the superior rapidity of his own. He commanded a battery in Sherman's corps during the siege of Vicksburg, and participated in both attacks on Haynes Bluff, in the Yazoo River expedition against Confederate gunboats, in the capture of Fort Hindman and Yazoo City, and in the attack on Fort Pemberton.

After the fall of Vicksburg he had command of the naval expedition up the Yazoo River in cooperation with 5,000 troops in transport. He led in the *De Kalb*, and while engaging with the batteries his vessel ran foul of a torpedo, which exploded and caused the vessel to sink almost instantly; a second torpedo exploded under her stern

as she went down. He subsequently commanded the steamer *Saco*, and the *Shazemut*, in which he participated in the capture of the forts near Wilmington, N. C. He was made commander in 1866; he served at the naval academy from 1866 to 1869, and commanded the frigate *Sabine* on a special cruise in 1869-70. He was secretary of the Lighthouse Board in 1873-78, had leave of absence and held an important administrative position on the Chicago, Burlington, and Quincy Railroad for two years, and in 1881 was appointed chief of the Bureau of Navigation in the Navy Department, which position he held for eight years.

In 1889 Admiral Walker was put in command of the squadron of evolution with the *Chicago* as flag-ship, and visited the ports of the Mediterranean. He was then assigned to the command of the South Atlantic Station and was sent with his squadron to congratulate the new republic of Brazil. His command was later transferred to the North Atlantic Station, and in 1892 he was sent to Venezuela to protect American interests during the revolution that resulted in the present form of government. He interested himself very actively in caring for the wounded of both parties, and for this service in the interests of humanity he was afterward decorated by the Venezuelan government. In the fall of 1893 Admiral Walker



U. S. S. INDIANA.

was appointed chairman of the Inspection Board, but in April, 1894, in view of the critical condition of affairs in Hawaii, he was placed in command of the Pacific Station and sent to Honolulu, where he remained until autumn, when he was recalled to Washington and appointed chairman of the Lighthouse Board, which position he still holds.

When Admiral Walker retires from active duty in March, 1897, under the age limit, the naval service will lose an able and distinguished officer, a man of advanced ideas, of splendid resources, of strong individuality, and of brilliant courage.

Admiral Francis M. Ramsay was born in the District of Columbia, March 5, 1835.

the attacks on Fort Fisher, for which he was officially commended as a brave, skilful, and able officer. He took a prominent part in the capture of Fort Anderson and other forts on the Cape Fear River. In 1866 he was advanced to the rank of commander, and was chief-of-staff on the South Atlantic Squadron in 1867-69. In 1873 he was promoted to be captain and commanded the torpedo station in 1878-80. From 1881 to 1886 he was superintendent of the naval academy at Annapolis. On March 26, 1889, he was promoted commodore and on April 11, 1894, he was raised to the rank of rear-admiral. Since November 1, 1889, Admiral Ramsay has been chief of the Bureau of Navigation at Washington. Recently he



U. S. S. MASSACHUSETTS.

He entered the navy as a midshipman in 1850, and after passing through the various grades was promoted to be lieutenant-commander on July 16, 1862. He took an active part in the Civil War, serving in 1862-63 on the Mississippi and Yazoo Rivers, commanding a battery of heavy guns during the siege of Vicksburg and rendering efficient service to General Grant in capturing that city. From the time of the surrender of Vicksburg on July 4, 1863, until the following September he was in command of the third division of the Mississippi Squadron. Having been transferred to the North Atlantic Squadron he distinguished himself in

was assigned to duty as the navy member of the Santa Monica Commission, which appointment was authorized by the River and Army Law, lately passed. As this duty will be only temporary it will not necessitate Admiral Ramsay's retiring from the position of chief of the Bureau of Navigation. It is the intention of Secretary Herbert to retain him in this position until the expiration of his administration of the Navy Department, a month from which time the retirement of Admiral Ramsay will take place.

Rear-admiral Thomas O. Selfridge is the son of the rear-admiral of the same

name who is the senior officer of the navy on the retired list. The subject of this sketch was born in Charlestown, Mass., February 6, 1837, and was graduated at the head of his class at the naval academy in 1854. He was second lieutenant of the *Cumberland* when she was sunk by the *Merrimac* in Hampton Roads, Va. He was detailed to command the *Monitor* after the famous engagement with the *Merrimac*, but was transferred as flag lieutenant of the North Atlantic Squadron. On the 16th of July, 1862, he was promoted lieutenant-commander, and commanded the iron-clad steamer *Cairo*, which was blown up by a torpedo in the Yazoo River near Vicksburg. He took a prominent part in the siege of Vicksburg, and in the Red River expedition. In 1863 he had command of the fifth division of the Mississippi River Fleet. The next year he was transferred to the Atlantic, and commanded the *Huron* in both attacks upon Fort Fisher, and led the third division of the landing party of sailors that stormed the fort. On December 3, 1869, he was promoted to commander, and during the next three years he was engaged in surveying the inter-oceanic canal across the Isthmus of Darien, and other routes. From 1877 to 1880 he commanded the steamer *Enterprise*



SENIOR REAR-ADMIRAL GEORGE BROWN, U.S.N.

of the North Atlantic Station, during which time he surveyed the Amazon River. On the 24th of February, 1881, he was commissioned captain, and for four years had charge of the torpedo station at Newport, R. I. From 1885 to 1887, he commanded the *Omaha* of the Asiatic Squadron. On the 11th of April, 1894, he was promoted commodore, and upon the retirement of Admiral Carpenter in the spring of 1890 he was raised to the rank of rear-admiral. Since November 12, 1895, he has been in command of the European Station.

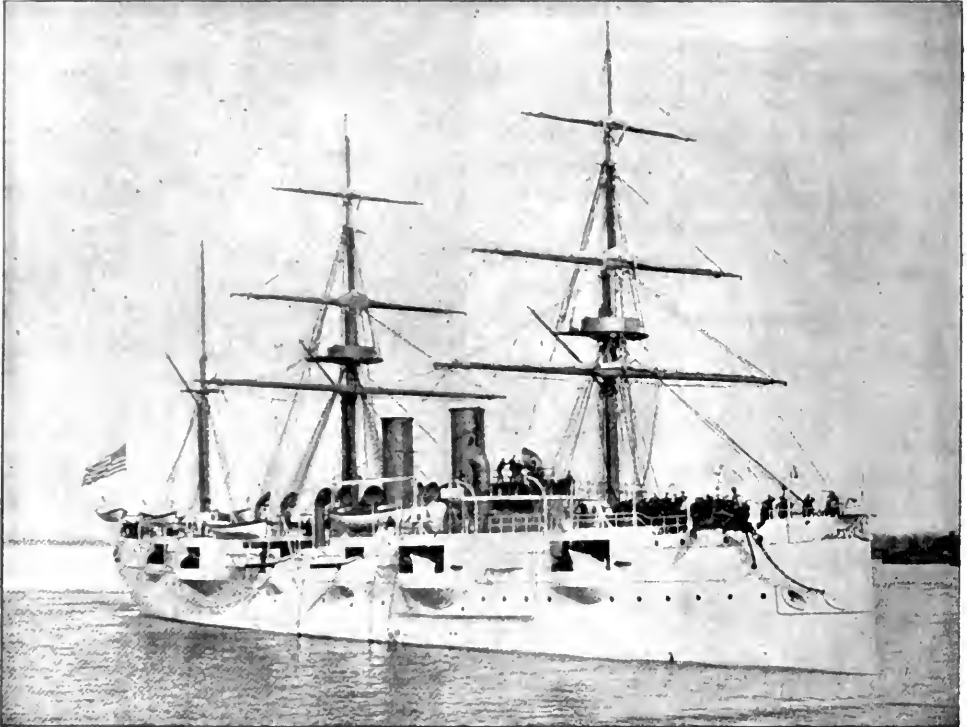
Admiral William A. Kirkland was appointed from North Carolina, July 2, 1850. He was attached to the sloop *Portsmouth* of the Pacific Squadron from 1851 to 1855; served on the frigate *St. Lawrence* and the sloop *Plymouth* of the Brazil Squadron, 1857-59; became a lieutenant-commander in 1862, and was attached to the Western Gulf Blockading Squadron, 1864-65; commanded the steamer *Wasp* of the South Atlantic Squadron, 1866-70; was commissioned captain April 1, 1880, commodore June 27, 1893, and rear-admiral March 1, 1895. His last sea service expired November 24, 1896, since which time he has been at Brooklyn, waiting orders. Admiral Kirkland is a well-known figure in the streets of Brooklyn,



REAR-ADMIRAL LESTER A. BEARDSLEE, U.S.N.

where he has passed many years at the navy yard as captain and in command of the receiving ship *Vermont*. He is a bluff, sturdy sailor, more at home on the quarter-deck than in a fashionable drawing-room.

tached to the Asiatic Squadron; from 1869 to 1874 he was on duty at the hydrographic office and Washington Navy Yard; in 1875 he was selected by the Navy Department to serve on a mixed board of the army and



U. S. S. NEWARK.

Flag-ship of the South Atlantic Squadron.

Admiral Lester A. Beardslee was born in New York, whence he was appointed to the navy March 5, 1850. His first service was on the sloop *Plymouth*, of the East India Squadron; 1851-55 he participated in one of the battles and several of the skirmishes with the Chinese army at Shanghai; he was commissioned as lieutenant in 1859 and served on the coast of Africa, in the sloop *Saratoga*, 1860-63; on July 16, 1862 was made lieutenant-commander, and in 1863 joined the Atlantic Blockading Squadron, and took part in the attack upon the defenses of Charleston Harbor on April 7, 1863; was commander of the *Wachusett* which captured the famous Confederate steamer *Florida* in October, 1864.

In 1866-68 Commander Beardslee was at-

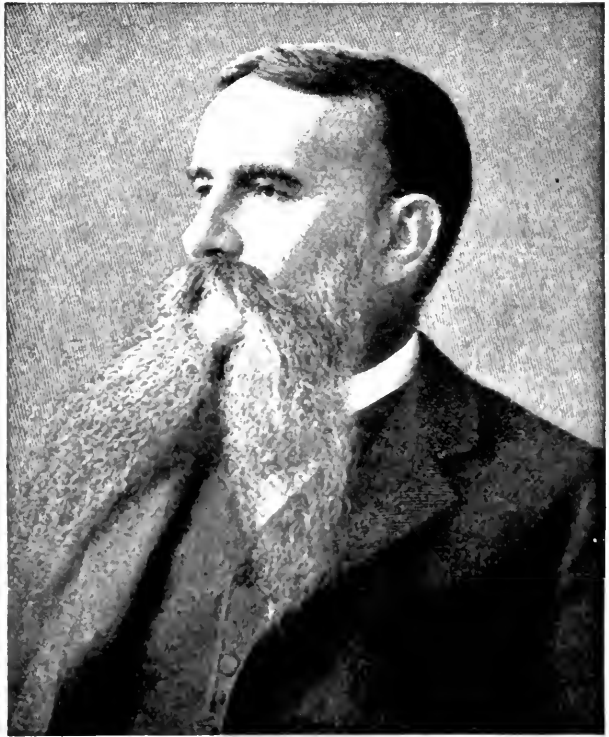
navy, appointed by act of Congress to test American metals. In 1879 he was detailed to command the United States steamer *Jamestown* and charged with the duty of managing American affairs, subduing and taming the Indians, and supplying to Alaska some form of civil government; in November, 1880, he was promoted captain; from June, 1884, to June, 1886, Captain Beardslee commanded the steam frigate *Powhatan*; in 1887 he was in charge of the torpedo station. He was promoted to be commodore on the 23d of February, 1894, and was made rear-admiral on the 21st of May, 1895. Since the 24th of August, 1894, Admiral Beardslee has been in command of the Pacific Station.

The United States Navy, in the number

of its ships, does not compare with the other great nations of the world, but in the skill and bravery of the officers and men we are without a peer.

There are five squadrons, divided and officered as follows:

The North Atlantic Station is commanded by Commodore Francis M. Bunce, and includes seven vessels. Of these the *New York*, the *Columbia*, and the *Maine* are known as "first-rates." The *New York* is the flag-ship, and is commanded by Captain Winfield S. Schley. She is a twin-screw, armored cruiser of 34 guns; displacement, 8,200 tons, and cost \$2,985,000; speed, 21 knots. She was commissioned August 1, 1893. The Pacific Station is commanded by Rear-admiral Beardslee, whose flag-ship is the *Philadelphia*, captain, Charles S. Cotton. The Asiatic Station is commanded by Commodore Frederick V. McNair, who has the rank of rear-admiral while commanding this station. His flag-ship is the *Columbia*, a triple screw, protected cruiser of 23 guns, Captain John J. Reed commanding. The European Station, as already mentioned, is commanded by Rear-admiral Selfridge, with the protected cruiser *San Francisco* for his flag-ship, Captain Edwin M. Shepard commanding. The



REAR-ADMIRAL JOHN G. WALKER, U. S. N.

South Atlantic Station is commanded by Commodore Charles S. Norton. This is the smallest of the five squadrons, and numbers only three vessels. The *Newark* is the flag-ship, Captain Yates Stirling commanding.

Our battle-ships of recent construction have been remarkable for their great speed. The *Columbia*, for instance, on its official trial trip, made the extraordinary run, over part of the course, of 25 knots an hour; the



U. S. S. NEW YORK
Flag-ship of the North Atlantic Squadron.

average over the whole course was 22.81 knots, thus breaking the world's record for every vessel of her class ever afloat. The *Iowa*, *Massachusetts*, and *Indiana* are our finest vessels up to date, and reflect great credit upon the United States Navy. These magnificent battle-ships are each of more than 10,000 tons, protected by 14 to 18-inch armor, and cost over \$3,000,-

000 each. The *Indiana* is the mightiest vessel of the United States Navy. On the foreground of the deck are two 13-inch breech-loading rifles. To fire one of these with tooled steel projectile costs \$700. The *Indiana* is commanded by Captain Robley D. Evans, and has been pronounced by experts to be capable of giving battle to any vessel afloat.

THE PURIFICATION OF WATER.

BY FRANK J. THORNBURY. M. D.

LECTURER ON BACTERIOLOGY IN THE UNIVERSITY OF BUFFALO.

WE have in the fact of the absence of bacteria in water which comes from artesian wells and springs, after its percolation through the earth, an important suggestion of a means by which water may be improved in its character. The forces of gravity and capillarity explain the above process, minute capillary streams being formed which run in all directions through the soil. When we consider the coarse texture of the soil it is rather to be wondered at that greater numbers of bacteria are not carried into the lower strata, but the depth of the soil through which the water percolates before it again reaches the surface explains this discrepancy.

Toward imitating nature several large municipalities both in this country and in Europe have had huge sand filters constructed, through which water before its distribution for consumption is allowed to slowly trickle, the gross impurities being strained out, as it were. In many instances this attempt has been successful in changing a dirty or even muddy water into a clear and limpid fluid. When we consider the fact that a number of natural water supplies which were originally pure have become, as the penalty of increasing population, virtually diluted sewage, we must realize the extent of refuse which will accumulate in one of these filter beds after only a short usage. And strange to say it is the mechanical action of this sediment itself, which swarms in low forms of vegetable life, that is to im-

prove the filtering capacity of the sand bed. The sediment occludes the pores which will be present in even the finest sand obtainable. A filter like the foregoing is, then, simply a dense bed of bacteria and slime, composed largely of degenerated vegetable substances. Notwithstanding all this, water which passes really seems to improve as regards the number, at least, of the bacteria which it contains.

But as the bacteria which appear in the effluent are not entirely a residue of those which have entered, but rather represent organisms which have been washed from the deeper portions of the filter, we may readily see that if the filter had been contaminated by a transitory passage of foul sewage containing perhaps pathogenic organisms water might be deteriorated rather than improved in its quality.

Where such a system of purifying water is employed the water should be sedimented for two or three days by simply allowing it to stand, so that some at least of the impurities—gross and bacterial—will be disposed of and the filter given less to do.

The quantity of water which filter beds yield is influenced naturally by the pressure to which the water is subjected, but time is another important modifying factor, the effluent or filtrate becoming gradually less on account of the occlusion of the filter by bacteria and the coarser ingredients of sewage. When the effluent water becomes too small the filter is said to be "dead" and requires

to be cleaned. In summer the cleansing has to be resorted to every two or three weeks and in as many months in winter. When a pure water is no longer furnished, then the sand also has to be removed, and usually this must be resorted to once a year. Frequent bacteriological examinations of the water yielded by these filter beds also have to be made, and if this is neglected serious danger may ensue. Defects in the working of the beds are best detected in this way.

Another fact, knowledge of which is very important in the use of filtered water, is the great tendency to growth of bacteria in it, so that the water should not be allowed to stand long before use. The susceptibility to auto-infection of the water by disease-producing germs is increased by the removal of protective substances. In this case a few bacteria may be more dangerous than larger numbers, their character being the determining factor. However perfectly a large sand filter may functionate, some bacteria will always be found in the effluent and their increase to as many as 2,310,000 per cubic centimeter in 36 hours has been noticed. As the filtering material consists essentially in a mass of dead and living organisms it is only too apparent that objectionable bacteria—pathogenic—might make a filter a source of danger rather than of service.

The attempts at imitating nature in the work of filtration have been far from successful. The chief influence in the process—nitrification—seems to have been entirely lost sight of. And the sooner this is realized, and also the fact that filtration is rather a biological than mechanical process, pure and simple, the sooner will the much-needed improvements in artificial filtration be made. In nature, again, filtration is intermittent and regulated by rainfalls, etc., while in the use of sand beds there is a continuous flow; this too makes an important difference in the result obtained. The value of intermittent filtration in the disposition of sewage by the sewage farm system has been amply illustrated by experiments conducted under the auspices of the Massachusetts State Board of Health. The efficiency of nitrifi-

cation was here indicated by the loss of albuminoid and free ammonia and by an increase in the nitrates. For testing the process three to five feet of sand were placed in tanks over a layer of rocks and a coating of yellow loam was placed on the surface. Through this the sewage was allowed to pass intermittently. In applying this principle to beds of sand, four times the area necessary for continuous filtration is required.

Concerning household filters, to quote Wyatt Johnson: “(1) Ninety per cent of all the styles sold are absolutely unreliable and do not fulfil their claims, and with the remainder good results are obtained only by proper management; (2) in all filters cleaning and sterilizing is necessary at intervals of about a week; (3) all filters which have a receiving chamber, where filtered water is allowed to stand indefinitely, should be discarded as dangerous.”

Therefore the question of rendering an impure water drinkable by means of a small domestic filter is one which has as yet not received a satisfactory solution. How unlikely an unintelligent individual is to give a filter, which might be serviceable if properly cleansed and sterilized, the necessary attention is only too apparent. Usually these domestic filters are allowed to go uncleansed for weeks or even months at a time, while in other instances they are simply adjusted and then allowed to remain attached to the faucet indefinitely, the person using them being of the impression that the device is entirely capable of taking care of itself and that it will remove everything, from the smallest sized bacterium to objects the size of a lizard.

Such filters may be a positive source of danger, as the bacteria accumulate in and grow through them, the last state of the water being usually worse than the first, even though it may appear clean and appetizing. The ordinary carbon, glass, pumice, and asbestos filters as a rule yield a filtrate that contains more bacteria than the water from which it was derived, or if the water originally contained many organisms they appear in undiminished quantities.

These difficulties with household filters consist in their not providing for nitrification (the most important influence in artificial as well as in natural filtration), in the fact of accumulated particles being washed off, and finally in the receiving chamber's forming a suitable *nidus* for reinfection. A few filters, like the Pasteur-Chamberlain, are procurable which will show a filtrate practically free from microorganisms for a few days, but the quantity which they are capable of allowing to pass is so small, and the attention which they require so technical, that they are of little practical moment in the household, even though they may be of some aid to us in the laboratory.

Remaining to be considered as means of purifying water are the use of the meter system, electricity, heat, certain chemical agents, and sedimentation or precipitation. The two last-named means may be disposed of in a few words. There are not many chemicals that can be added to water in sufficient quantity to purify it completely without themselves proving harmful. Chemicals of course may be used for preparing antiseptic solutions for use in surgery. But even the rôle of these latter solutions—like bichloride of mercury—is becoming very much narrowed as the result of recent and more accurate data concerning indications for their use and their efficiency.

The influence of sedimentation has been touched upon in considering filtration. When water is quiescent for a time the bacterial elements present tend to settle to the lower strata in accordance with the laws of gravity. This tendency may be enhanced somewhat by the addition to the water of finely powdered or granular substances, like lime, calcium carbonate, etc., which in falling carry the bacteria down with them. But as this means of improving the condition of water is essentially very limited on account of its crudeness and its impractical side, suffice it to keep in mind the effect of precipitation in giving somewhat quiescent waters, as found in large ponds and lakes, a place over running streams and rivers. But again we have to offset the effect of sedimentation in the former, the influence of

oxidation, constantly occurring in agitated waters through their greater exposure to the atmosphere. This latter is probably nature's most important means of purifying water and by it she is able to dispose of incalculable quantities of organic matter.

Dr. Martin, a professor in Columbia University, says that electrical purification of both water and sewage is a success, chemically and bacteriologically. The true use of the process has probably been pointed out pretty well by Clemens Herschel, the engineer who built the great system of water works covering a large part of the northern portion of New Jersey. Thus far few cities have employed electrical purification, but recently the municipality of Lexington, Ky., has been subjecting its water to this form of treatment, and has thereby attracted considerable attention from other critics. The daily water consumption of Lexington is 24,000,000 gallons. By the method employed all nitrogenous substances—including animal refuse, decaying vegetable matter, etc.—are attacked by the ozone generated and rendered harmless. The quantity of free oxygen liberated by the electric current being absorbed by the water renders it healthful and sparkling.

The apparatus in brief is this: Water flows through a feed pipe into a porcelain-lined receiving tank three feet square. Poles from a Ruhmkorff coil enter this tank from opposite ends. There are ninety-seven miles of wire in the coil; by this, with the aid of a sufficiently powerful dynamo, 10,000 volts of electricity are intermittently discharged through this water. The water, through the medium of a discharge pipe, then enters a second vat, which is three feet in diameter by seven feet in depth. This last chamber is made of iron, lined with india-rubber, and is pear-shaped. The lower end connects with a waste pipe, by means of which the refuse and other matter precipitated during the process may be drawn off. At the top of this chamber and also at its lower sections are a series of wires connected with another dynamo, which supplies a continuous galvanic current, thus giving the secondary electrolysis.

On the top of the chamber is a large electromagnet, surrounded by a series of smaller ones. The water, by pressure, is forced past these magnets into a third vat or chamber, similar to the one first named, and again descends into a pear-shaped vat. The electric process is repeated in the third case, so that the water has to run the gauntlet of three preliminary chambers and pear vats. In all, therefore, it receives the discharge of three Ruhmkorff coils—30,000 volts—to say nothing of the treatment to which it is subjected in the secondary vats. An analysis of the water when it issues from its final ordeal reveals that it is chemically pure. But here again with electrical purification we have the omnipresent expense to consider, and a prominent health authority who has given the subject attention claims that this feature renders it impracticable in many cases. The dynamos must also be kept in good running order and the waste pipes turned at stated intervals.

Of the various means of purifying water heat is the most simple, reliable, and absolute. Less than one per cent of the bacteria in water will withstand boiling for a few minutes, while the greater proportion of them is destroyed at a temperature far below this in less than a minute. This pertains to the chief pathogenic organisms which we have to consider—typhoid fever, cholera, and the colon bacillus; hence boiling or even heating water becomes an important safeguard in time of epidemics.

For purifying limited quantities of water, as for surgical use in hospitals, etc., there have been several sterilizers designed. Undoubtedly the most important means of purifying water on a large scale thus far attempted is that employed by the Crystal Water Company, which now has plants in a number of our large cities. The method is in short as follows:

By a mechanical arrangement water is first relieved of its free ammonia and sedimentary matter. It is then purified by a double distillation process, and as *aqua pura* it is conducted through pure block tin piping to an aerator fifty feet high.

From here its descent is retarded by a filling of crushed sterilized granite and a series of tin disks, by the combined aid of which it is broken up into minute globules. But water must have air, and the air must be pure. Hence air taken from a high elevation is pumped to the bottom of a large cylinder containing pure water. Escaping through the fine perforations of the pipe into the water, it rises and is thoroughly washed. It is then sterilized by 400 degrees of heat and after being rewashed by a process similar to the former it is fed to the descending water in the aerator, which takes up a normal quantity and becomes an absolutely pure re-aerated distilled water, clear as crystal, and sparkling. In this form it pours into a storage tank lined with pure tin and hermetically sealed.

This water is then distributed in flint glass bottles sealed by an ingenious metallic stopper. Every bottle on its return is cleansed and rinsed with pure water and then sterilized by 300 degrees of heat, thus absolutely destroying all possible disease germs. In filling the bottles the displacement is of hot air, so that the water cannot have any impure air contact. It is now ready for delivery. Placed in the ice-chest and refrigerated externally the perfection of drinking water is secured.

Repeated examinations of crystal water during the past few months have convinced the writer of its superiority over all waters thus far tested bacteriologically. Close inspection of the plant and apparatus and familiarity with the methods employed indicated, however, in advance, the improbable existence of microorganisms in this doubly distilled and re-aerated water placed in properly sterilized bottles. In fact their presence seems precluded by the treatment to which the water is subjected with the technique employed. The general use of such water for drinking purposes would save the United States annually at least 50,000 lives and \$100,000,000.

With reference to the use of bottled waters generally—mineral waters so called—it is deemed necessary to add here a word of advice. Most of these waters,

while naturally pure as they emerge from the earth, soon become contaminated, and then in their quiescent state in bottles for perhaps months before being used they are afforded ample opportunity for a growth of bacteria such as would defeat all effort at numerical calculation.

Few of the individuals who have anything to do with the filling of these bottles have any knowledge of *asepsis* and accordingly the bottles are not properly cleansed and sterilized preparatory to the filling. With the rapidity of reproduction of which bacteria are capable the presence of only a few in a bottle at the beginning would give rise to vast colonies in the course of a few days. Persons who have used these "mineral waters" probably have often noticed the sediment in the bottom of the bottle without thinking what it meant. Often they may have been deluded by the thought that it was the mineral ingredients that had precipitated. This sediment is the product of and abounds in microorganisms.

Even after standing for years the water prepared by the double distillation and

reaeration process described above will be found unchanged because of the technique employed and the fact of the absolute absence of any bacteria in the water when it is put into the bottles, which are sterilized. From this pure "crystal water" any of the various "mineral waters" may be made by adding the salts in proper proportion.

The temperature of the water to be drunk is often a vexed question. This may be left to the individual, for the quantity taken (one half to one pint) at any one time can have but little influence upon the temperature of the 14 pints of blood circulating rapidly about the 70 or more pounds of water in the tissues, which are maintained at a temperature of 97½ degrees.

For experiment two tumblers of ice-water have been slowly swallowed and promptly siphoned out and found to have attained a temperature of 95 degrees in five minutes. It is true that it is possible to swallow ice-water rapidly and in such quantities that the stomach receives a momentary chill and disturbance sets in, but this is no reason why moderately cooled water should be forbidden.

THE AGE OF ELECTRIC TRAVEL.

BY GEORGE ETHELBERT WALSH.

ELECTRIC traction appeals to the American public more forcibly than any other of the manifold uses of electricity. In a country of vast distances the roads early monopolize public attention, for on them the future prosperity and development of the land are dependent. We have been the greatest road-building country in the world—not common roads, but railroads. The reason for this is plain. The possibilities of the steam railroad were just beginning to dawn upon mankind when the early American pioneers started in to conquer a new continent, and to uncover the resources of mines, woods, and fields for the benefit of mankind.

The railroad was fitted to a country of this size and character, and within the cen-

tury we became the greatest railroad-building nation of the globe. Gigantic systems of roads were stretched across the continent, and all important points were connected by side lines and auxiliary roads. The greatest energy and capital of the nation were monopolized by this industry. The common people put their savings in railroad bonds and stocks, and the national government encouraged the movement financially and otherwise, and great geniuses and financiers devoted their lives to the problems. As we look back now upon the history of the past fifty years we see a great nation spending half its energy in building railroads, struggling to intersect every part of this fair land with cheap systems of transportation, and risking everything in the gigantic enterprise.

But the stagnation in railroading that has been noticeable during the past five or ten years is but the sign of another transition period. The work of the next generation is clearly along the line of improving existing roads, and in reducing the cost of maintaining and operating them. The uncertain bearing of electricity on this subject has been a great source of uneasiness among stockholders, and while the managements are striving to adjust their roads to the new conditions they are not entirely relieved of all anxiety as to the final outcome of the question. Electricity has entered as a disturbing factor, and our old friend, the steam-engine, is threatened with neglect, and final abandonment.

It is only proper and natural that the greatest railroad-building nation should take the lead in electrical traction, and with conditions unrivaled for experiment and practical demonstration we would be unworthy of the distinction conferred upon us by struggling ancestors if we did not sustain our reputation.

In converting our steam lines, cable, and horse-car roads into electrical railways the question of obtaining the power from cheap and abundant sources is paramount. The success of the Niagara people opens up a field heretofore existing merely in speculation, and it has had the effect of stimulating others in original investigations and experiments to obtain power from similar sources. Vague rumors have been current to the effect that capitalists were on the point of organizing to convert the power of the Mississippi, Missouri, and other rivers into electrical energy. It has been estimated that the tides of the North and East Rivers exert a power many times greater than would be required to light the whole metropolitan district, and to supply heat for the buildings and turn the wheels of all the railroads and factories. The question of collecting and storing this power seems to be the only debatable part of the subject, and this is being seriously considered by inventors and scientists. A tidal water plant has been established at Bowers Cove, near Providence, Rhode Island, where experi-

ments are now being made to convert the energy of the tides into electricity. It is anticipated by the promoters of the enterprise that power, light, and heat can be supplied to all the mills, traction companies, and private houses in Rhode Island at less than one half the present cost.

It may be many years before we shall succeed in harnessing the tides along the two great oceans that wash our shores, but they are sources of such an endless amount of power that the world will not be satisfied until they are controlled, or their utility proved futile. The conversion of the energy exerted by the currents of our great rivers into useful power is limited only by the question of initial expense in establishing the plant.

Another great source of power that is open for experiment and investigation is the air which circulates around us. The winds turn tens of thousands of windmills to-day, and pump up millions of gallons of water from their subterranean springs. The power of the winds reclaimed a good portion of Holland from the sea by turning the innumerable windmills that pumped the water from behind the dikes and emptied it into the ocean again. Vast stretches of land, and many small cities and towns, receive their entire water supply from the same source. The winds of one season exert power enough to supply the whole country with all the power that it could possibly use. The question of harnessing the winds and converting their energy into electric heat, light, and power is, not a new one, but its solution is not yet within the sight of living scientists. Nevertheless, here is power in abundance, wasted energy sufficient to turn the car-wheels and machinery of a whole continent, and merely waiting for the inventive genius of man to control it.

The production of electricity from coal is to-day the expensive method by which we obtain most of our power. Nature stored up ages ago in the bowels of the earth vast power and energy which have been drawn forth to meet the requirements of men ever since, and no one can say how long the coal fields will continue to yield the power to

turn the wheels of commerce. The cost of mining the coal and of making electricity from it is so great according to our present crude methods that it is impossible to decrease the cost of power much below the present rates. There are still many able scientists who believe that electricity can yet be made from coal without the present enormous waste, and that the ultimate solution of the power problem lies in this direction. The stored-up energy of the coal mines is too vast to calculate, and it seems a wasteful process not to be able to utilize it in some way. And yet it is the last source of power that we desire to go to, for of all mentioned it is the dirtiest, clumsiest, and the least economical.

The stored-up power of the coal fields, however, yields most of the electrical energy to run the machinery of commerce and the cars of city and suburban railways. Electricity thus competes with steam on the same basis. In the past seven years it has replaced it in many departments of human progress. The energy stored up in the coal fields is transformed in one case into electricity and in the other into steam. The two then enter into direct competition in producing mechanical motion. The waste incidental to the production of steam is so enormous that some other method of creating mechanical power has been in urgent demand for years, and in a general way this loss is perceptibly lessened by the introduction of the dynamo. In electric traction the loss of energy in propelling the cars, and in slowing up and starting again, is relatively small, and recent experiments have demonstrated that on certain lines it is the more economical of the two.

With these advantages in favor of electricity the question that presses for solution is, Will this power ultimately supersede steam on all of the railroad systems of the land? Should an affirmative answer be given the change in our railroads would be tremendous, and there would be another great era of railroading that would rival the past fifty years of road construction.

An examination of the earnings of the leading railroad companies of the United

States does not show excessive profits, and in many instances the margin is so small that any sudden reduction in the traffic would wipe this out and send the company into bankruptcy. It is utterly impossible for the railroads to be run upon the present basis at a much lower charge for transportation, and if the great need of the day is cheaper traveling facilities some more economical power than steam must be utilized. The electric lines have invaded the cities and suburbs to such an extent that many of the steam lines have either abandoned their short-haul service or substituted electricity for steam. Five years ago the managers of the railroads ignored their electrical rivals, but their growth has been so steady and stupendous that they now give serious consideration to their development and extension. Wherever the electric lines have been built the steam roads have eventually been forced to change their motive power or to abandon the field. In every short-haul service electricity has triumphed over its rival, and now it threatens to compete on longer systems.

Steam railroad building, as before remarked, has been at a standstill for a number of years now, but enough short lines of electric roads have been constructed to compensate for this many times over. The electric lines are ramifying in every direction, acting in many cases as feeders to the steam roads, or at least this is what the managers of the steam roads would like to consider as the true condition of affairs. But unfortunately they are not satisfied with being merely feeders; they are constructing and forming systems of their own, independent of the steam roads.

A good illustration of the growth of electric railways may be had by studying the state of Massachusetts, where a network of lines already covers the eastern part of the state and projected and contemplated roads will in time connect all the western centers of population. The center of all this network of electric lines is in Boston, but from this point they run in all directions, becoming less extensive and numerous as they get away from the chief city of the state. The

suburbs for miles in either direction have been built up marvelously by the electric lines. When outside of the city limits the cars make excellent time, and they are built with the idea of giving comfort and pleasure to the riders. It is now easier to reach the suburbs five or ten miles distant from the center of Boston than ten years ago it was possible to reach the extreme boundary of the city. All of the suburban towns are connected with Boston by electric lines, and they can be reached at any hour of the day or night for five or ten cents.

But beyond the suburbs the electric lines extend to towns and cities that were formerly cut off from the main center of population. Each city has its distinct system, with one or more lines connecting with the systems of some neighboring town or city, and from these main roads minor lines ramify in every direction.

While Massachusetts may illustrate the foremost expansion of the electric railway system, it does not by any means stand alone in actively building trolley lines. Every large town and city in the country has its electric railroad systems, which are rapidly extending their branch lines further and further into the country, coming into more direct competition with the steam lines every day. The low cost of building and equipping the roads, and the good profits realized from operating them, make the trolley lines popular with manager, directors, and stockholders, while the cheapness of transportation and clean, rapid service please the public. New York, Pennsylvania, and New Jersey have encouraged the growth of the electric roads, and parts of their territory are covered by a network of lines that leaves no room for new ones. It is not simply in the suburbs of the large cities that the lines are constructed, but they connect most of the leading towns and villages, and to do this they travel twenty and thirty miles out into the uninhabited country, building up along the lines summer resorts and pleasant all-the-year-round residential communities.

Several years ago railroad managers had to concede that the electric service was best suited for short hauls, especially in the cities

and suburbs, and many of them partly substituted electric motors on their lines. This was specially emphasized in Baltimore, where the series of trials with the electric engine and steam-engine were conspicuously made to demonstrate the superiority of the former over the latter. The electric engine built for service in that city proved such a success that new ones were immediately ordered, not only for Baltimore but for other cities as well.

Since that series of experiments the introduction of the electric engine has been seriously discussed, and it is considered by some merely a matter of time before the steam-engine will be in much less use than to-day. The electric locomotive has been in successful operation for some time now in several parts of the country, and its services are almost as efficient as the trolley car. This is the third and last advance of electricity in railroad circles. The electric locomotive is built with a view to making long hauls, and not to be confined to city and suburban traffic. It is to come into more open and direct competition with the steam-engine than anything else. On the City and South London Railway there has been in actual service for some time electric locomotives that have given satisfaction in every way. But the English locomotive is not called upon to do the hard work required of those in America, for the conditions of the railway, traffic, and size of the cars are very different.

In Baltimore the experiments with the electric locomotive in drawing the trains through the long tunnel were made with a view to abolishing the nuisance of gas and smoke. They proved so powerful in their hauling capacity, so neat and clean in their action, and so generally satisfactory that others were immediately ordered for railroads operating their lines through similar tunnels within the limits of cities.

While electric locomotives were only intended to haul trains through tunnels that pass under or through the heart of cities, their virtues were so pronounced that experiments were made by other railroad companies with a view to substituting them for

steam-engines should conditions warrant the change. Electric locomotives have been built and operated by the Pennsylvania Railroad on a branch of their main line, near Pittsburgh, called the Turtle Creek Railroad. Here the experts in the employ of the company are making thorough tests of the electric engines, and their efficiency and general service will be determined before they will be generally introduced on the company's system. One point so far is practically demonstrated, and that is that steam will gradually be done away with within large city limits. This conclusion was reached by the managers of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad after their tests were made, and the Pennsylvania people are almost ready to go a step further and introduce the electric locomotive in the suburbs, and on all short-service lines. This will practically limit the steam-engines to the long-haul service, and they will be seen only in the country running between cities and widely separated towns.

In operating the heavy electric locomotives the question of expense has not been considered so much as that of convenience and comfort to the passengers. But the cost of operating the trains drawn by the

electric locomotives is less than that of steam, and the service is infinitely superior.

Like the trolley lines, the electric locomotive begins its usefulness in the city and then extends its service into the suburbs and short country lines. Under present conditions it can be operated on these lines with much greater satisfaction than the steam-engine, but whether it will ever replace the latter on long hauls for general service no one can to-day determine. But judging from the present growth and expansion of trolley lines throughout the country it is reasonable to predict that the electric locomotive will in time do away with the steam-engine. Especially would this be true, and the time hastened, if some more economical source of power could be discovered and utilized. If the energy exerted by the rivers, tides, and wind could be collected and distributed to run the railroad trains of the country, and our coal fields abandoned for all future ages as an ancient and crude form of obtaining heat, light, and power, we would soon see the land full of clean, odorless, and smokeless electric locomotives rushing from one city to another, and shorter lines equipped with trolley cars to nourish and feed them.

SPAIN AND CUBA.

BY JAMES HOWE BABCOCK.

THE Cuban revolution has brought up for consideration, if not for very serious and careful calculation, the question of the military power of Spain. The question has two practical forms: (1) Is Spain strong enough to subdue her insurgent colonists? (2) What chance may there be that, in exasperation sharpened by failure to subdue the insurrection, Spain might declare war upon the United States? It is not probable that Spain will crush the Cuban rebels; it is less probable that the Spaniards will make war upon this country. Perhaps, however, it is too confidently assumed that neither event is within the sphere of the possible. Obviously much will de-

pend upon the extent of the Spanish resources; for it is well understood that the people of the Spanish peninsula, without respect to home politics, are firmly united in the purpose to retain possession of Cuba. This purpose is supported by an intense and enthusiastic feeling by which in existing conditions any propositions for compromise would be promptly rejected; but Spain has often accepted the inevitable.

Our government has practically proposed that Spain shall grant self-government to the Cubans, the latter laying down their arms upon the guaranty of the United States that the promise of Spain, broken at the end of the last revolt, shall this time be executed

in good faith. In the present temper of the Spaniards this proposition has small chance of favor, especially since President Cleveland has extended the Monroe Doctrine and set up for the United States a claim to ultimate authority in all controversies affecting American territory. The Monroe Doctrine was originally aimed at Spain. President Monroe warned the other powers of Europe in 1823 that any attempt to reconquer for Spain the South American states would be regarded by us as an unfriendly act. This announcement by President Monroe deprived Spain of her last chance to recover her colonies on the American continent. Therefore to Spain the Monroe Doctrine is historically odious. No European power likes the doctrine; Spain hates it. The very mention of it exasperates Spanish feeling against us.

We exasperate Spain in two other ways: (1) our press and our political platforms are quite unanimous in sympathetic support of the Cuban insurgents; (2) this country is the base of supplies for the rebels. In fact a part of the inhabitants of this country are engaged in making war upon Spanish authority in Cuba; and the simple truth is that our government has not the power, and our people have not the will, to prevent the departure from our shores of men and munitions destined for the rebels. In Spain the argument for attacking us grows stronger with the strength of the rebellion in Cuba. For, in the Spanish view, we are actually making war on Spain. Spaniards feel that the revolt is inspired and maintained by the people of the United States; and the more radical among them have a good argument when they advocate retaliation against us. This argument grows in eloquence precisely as the argument for direct interference grows among ourselves, by the mere continuance of a formidable resistance to Spanish authority in Cuba.

We should not overlook the fact that Spain has other historical grievances in our regard. Louisiana and Florida were Spanish when we set up national housekeeping. Spain under compulsion, in 1800, ceded Louisiana to Napoleon under a pledge not to alienate it except back to Spain; but the

French emperor sold this vast domain to us with indecent haste. In 1819 a dissolute and tyrannical king, Ferdinand VII., the worst of a bad lot of Bourbons, sold Florida to the United States, and this sale provoked a revolution in Spain. Both alienations rankle in the Spanish heart; we became the beneficiaries; that might have been forgiven if we had not set up the Monroe tenet as a shelter for South American rebels—to use their language. We ought not to be in any doubt about the sentiments of the Spaniards. Though Cuba remained “the ever faithful isle” during the period of the South American revolts, her people have forfeited the fulsome title by insurrections in 1829, 1844, 1848, 1851, 1868, and 1895; and people living in the United States have been accomplices or leaders of all these rebellions. It would be strange if Spain had no desire to repay us in kind for all these humiliations.

The knot of the Spanish problem is in the United States. She could subdue Cuba alone, but Cuba is not alone.

The Spanish statesmen know that our government is faithful to its international obligations. But it is one of the incurable defects of international law that it permits one country to be made a base of supplies for rebellion in another country. We learned all that lesson between 1862 and 1865. But, it may be asked, why did Great Britain afterward pay us \$15,000,000 for violating international law? Because she allowed Confederate war-ships to be built in her ports. We made no formal complaint against Englishmen furnishing guns, ammunition, and other military supplies to the Confederates. What our government now tries to do is to prevent armed bodies of men leaving our ports for the destination of Cuba. We are bound to formal diligence in this matter; we are not responsible if such expeditions escape our vigilance.

Why is this defect of international law incurable? For several reasons, among which freedom of commerce counts for much. The chief moral reason is that a nation cannot justly be held responsible for what its citizens may do in other countries. It

would be like holding a father to account for the conduct of grown-up sons. The truth is that a million of men might go from this country to the Cuban Army; they might be supported there by people living in this country; and all the while the hands of the United States might be clear of all complicity. The government is required only to stop armed men and armed ships—whenever expeditions are brought to its knowledge—if it is possible to do so. To incur guilt the neglect must be plainly manifest and notorious.

It is, therefore, the largest part of the task of Spain to deal with her enemies in the United States. The task would become impossible if our government once recognized the Cubans as belligerents. Our people would then more freely aid the rebels, and a Cuban navy would soon appear on the ocean. At that point, in the frenzy of exasperation, the Spaniards might declare war upon the United States. Such a declaration would not save Cuba to Spain; but it would make the freedom of Cuba very expensive for us. Spain could do us a great deal of mischief.

The resources of Spain cannot be measured without taking into the account some facts of Spanish history. It would be rash to conclude that a splendid past sheds no light on the present and future. In the sixteenth century Spain was the first power in the world. The sun never set on her dominions. Her soldiers were the best in Europe. The Greater Spain—including besides her American possessions the Netherlands, and provinces in Italy and North Africa—poured wealth into the homeland. Her arts and industries had taken the first place. The Moors, humbled to the dust and persecuted for their religion, had taken up the employments considered degrading by the *hidalgos*, and had carried them to a high state of perfection. They established a system of irrigation which made the harvests sure and abundant. They introduced the cultivation of sugar, silk, and rice. They placed the manufactures of Spain on a level with those of France and some of their goods were sought by other countries.

Spanish commerce in the same hands was rapidly becoming formidable by its method and skill.

But in 1609 Philip III., his priests having failed to convert the Moors, expelled them all from the kingdom, giving them but three days for their departure. If we could imagine the expulsion from this country of the majority of our workmen, merchants, and farmers, we would obtain some notion of the extent of the calamity inflicted upon Spain by this foolish and cruel decree.

This fatal blow to the economic resources of the country was accompanied and followed by a series of disasters in war and diplomacy; and at the end of the seventeenth century Spain had lost Portugal, was practically excluded from the Netherlands, was replaced by France in Italy, and had lost more in prestige than in territory. Historians connect these disasters with the persecutions of Jews and Moors, and the consequent weakness of Spain at the center. Under the Arabs there were twenty millions of inhabitants of the peninsula; at the end of the seventeenth century only six millions. Every home source of wealth had been dried up.

From that lowest point in fortune this Spanish nation has been rising, with many arrests and backward movements, during two centuries. The severe territorial losses of the first quarter of this century operated in the same direction as the follies of the seventeenth—to compel the Spaniards to develop their home resources, their mines, fields, and manufactures. They have profited by adversity because their soil, climate, and mines invited them to the development of the sturdy forces of their own character. The men who discovered and conquered the larger part of the Americas, whose soldiers and statesmen grasped and held for centuries so much of the mainland of Europe, belonged to a race which is by no means extinct. Its energy, courage, and endurance have been turned to peaceful pursuits, and Spain has grown in wealth and population, not by leaps and bounds, but steadily and securely. Compared with neighboring peoples the growth has been slow; but England, France, and Germany

have enjoyed advantages of situation and of circumstances, while Spain has been isolated by territorial losses and weakened by historical burdens. Until the middle of this century there were several Spains; the consolidation of the people was so tardily effected and the art of government was so slowly learned.

In our day there exists one Spanish people numbering twenty millions. The dynastic troubles and conflicts seem to be ended. The regency of the mother of the young king has been marked by prudence and admirable decorum; the lad, now in his eleventh year, who will "reign but not govern" in Spain, will come into an undisputed inheritance which his mother's wisdom has preserved and enriched. A belief in and a devotion to representative government unites the people in all the provinces, and though party spirit is strong the factional tendencies are checked effectually by a patriotic feeling which the Cuban revolt has strengthened—the union of Spanish people was never before so complete or so dangerous to rash interference with its rights and claims.

The insurrections of the Spanish colonies are the only trouble of the Spaniards. Every other European country, except Switzerland, is under more or less international distress. The fires of 1870 still burn in France and Germany; all the powers assist anxiously at conflagrations on the Bosphorus. All are on the alert for the diplomacy of each other. But in Spain all the old fires are burned out, and the people whose fortunes so long depended upon war and intrigue in Holland, Germany, Italy, and France have not the smallest European care or anxiety. So stable are their relations with other powers that any one of them would be glad to assist Spain in a war against us—if all the rest would join the league. In the event of such a war our safety would be these international quarrels and jealousies in which Spain has no share.

From an international point of view there is no flaw in the title of Spain to Cuba. We have never as a nation disputed that title or alleged the smallest defect. The only occasion on which we could apply the

original Monroe Doctrine would arise if Spain attempted to transfer the island to some other European power, and in such a case our only remedy would be war. The right of Cuba to self-government must be proved by successful revolution, by expelling the Spanish power. Our amended Monroe Doctrine modifies this international view in an indefinite measure. No one has a right to maintain a nuisance; no one has a right to impair the value of property intrusted to his care. These principles are not perfectly applied in international relations. We propose to apply them on our side of the Atlantic somewhat as the great powers of Europe have long applied them to Turkey, for example. For us it is untried ground; and we cannot safely settle the matter in mass-meeting.

The effective army of Spain, on a war footing, is about half a million of men. The Spanish Navy is not easily reckoned up because recent changes in naval architecture and armament change the value of ships and guns. We have a force of battle-ships for which Spain has no match. If a place of meeting could be fixed upon and the two navies were set to fighting we should probably destroy the fleets of Spain in a few hours. But the weaker power never faces a certain defeat in any such way. The Spanish Navy would keep out of our way as much as possible; and it is strong enough to do a good deal of harm to our coast towns, to our coastwise trade, and to our foreign commerce. For such warfare the Spaniards have one hundred and thirty-two vessels afloat, but few of them are modern and many of them are very small.

Perhaps our chief concern ought to be our duty to the Cubans. The argument that our interests are injured by the conflict in Cuba is precisely the argument used in Europe from 1862 to 1865 to justify interference in our civil conflict. We could not then deny, any more than Spain can deny now, that the war damaged other nations. Things were far worse then in England than they now are with us. The cotton famine starved workmen in the north of England. We have nothing to put by

the side of it except a rise in the cost of Havana cigars. We allege that the war is "cruel." That was the favorite word which Europe applied to our war in 1862-65. All war is cruel; if we went to war in the interest of Cuba that war would be cruel. The most careless readers of the newspapers must have observed that the Spanish government has been punctiliously exact in keeping international obligations due to us. Not the shadow of a pretext for the use of force by us has been allowed to arise and remain to darken the horizon. Spain keeps the international peace so carefully that we are restricted to some form of argument (for interference) which is based on our duty to the people of Cuba. It is perfectly plain that Spain will never admit that we have any duty of interference by force in the government of the island of Cuba. What will happen? Our share in what will happen is to be measured by the strength of Spain—as Spain measures her strength.

We may be sure that the rebellion will continue; that the rebels will continue to draw their supplies from our shores; that Spain will maintain an armed force in Cuba; that no European power will protest against Spanish rule in Cuba—for this negative purpose all Europe is on Spain's side. For the cost of a popular war—and this is a popular war in Spain—every dollar of the national wealth in a modern country is available. The debts of Spain are heavy, but her people are not poor. The inference seems to be that Spain will cling to Cuba until we wrest Cuba from her bloody hands. That is the issue—unless the rebels accept, through us, self-government under the Spanish crown. At the present time Spain is ready to grant self-government in her own way and according to her own pleasure; but there is small chance of her accepting our mediation. The things granted the Cubans in the two cases would be very different things. We should insist on literal and absolute control of Cuba by the Cubans.

Spain has in mind no such broad scheme of political emancipation; the Cubans will accept nothing less than the right and power to govern themselves in their own way.

Spain is strong enough to do great mischief along our coasts, to drive our commerce from the deep seas, and to interrupt if not destroy for the duration of the war our coastwise trade. Spain is almost the only nation that can afford to fight us. We could inflict great losses on England or France; we can do very little harm to Spain. A glance at a map will show why Spain is practically secure from injury at our hands.

The cities of Spain are inland or they border the Mediterranean Sea. And while Spain has Cuban forts close to our doors we have not a foot of ground in the Mediterranean for coaling our fleets; and the Straits of Gibraltar make that sea a bottle in which we should hardly risk our ships of war. The Spanish shores of the Bay of Biscay afford a very limited field for hostile naval operations, and the rest of Spain is out of our reach. Spain is at home in our waters; we should be far from home in Spanish seas. The natural conditions of such a naval war are on the side of the weaker power. These notes do not present inviting horizons. The Cuban question has been increasing in gravity for two long years. It must be hoped—though the hope has no very solid ground—that Spain may be persuaded to give the Cubans self-government. This is the only solution of the problem that can be contemplated with satisfaction. If the struggle lasts long we shall be drawn into the conflict. It is a part of the modern doctrine of liberty that no people is good enough to govern another and distant people against the will of the governed. The conflict in Cuba is a horrible one, and it is making a desert of "the gem of the Antilles." With whatever consequences to ourselves, we, the people of the United States, will not forever look idly on while Spain "pacifies" Cuba with fire and sword.

WOMAN'S COUNCIL TABLE.

WHERE WOMEN VOTE.

BY VINA J. LEE.

"I see they have a new name for us," said the lady beside whom it was my privilege to sit at table.

"Something very nice I hope," I replied.

"Oh, yes! we are now called 'the unquiet sex'!"

"I do not suppose that is intended as a compliment."

"Perhaps not. So long as women remained quiet they were all right, but as soon as they want any change in the existing state of affairs they at once become 'the unquiet sex.'"

"Take woman suffrage, for example," continued my companion. "If woman had remained quiet, do you suppose that she would have been given as much share in the suffrage as she now has? Not at all. What woman has already gained in the matter of voting has come from being unquiet. The woman suffrage societies, by constant and continuous agitation carried on during the past twenty-five years, have done much to obtain for women a large share of representation and political power."

There is no doubt that in the matter of suffrage "the unquiet sex" has made some headway of late years. At different times and in different places the ballot has been put into the hands of the women in order to keep them quiet. While woman suffrage has met with many set-backs, yet it has won many great victories.

The movement to obtain suffrage for women is world-wide. There are few countries in Europe and few states in the Union that have not granted women some form of suffrage. So that the question, Where do women vote? might be answered by asking, Where do they not vote? And some account of the suffrage rights thus far granted to women may be of interest.

Perhaps the greatest progress has been

made in the United States. For a majority of the states—not less than twenty-five or thirty states—have given women suffrage of one kind or another. The most common form is the power to vote at school elections.

In three of the states women vote with little or no restriction. The three states are Wyoming, Utah, and Colorado.

In Wyoming women have been voting on the same terms with men ever since 1870. This privilege was further secured to them by the state constitution, which was ratified at a special election prior to the admission of Wyoming as a state by Congress on July 10, 1890. Of course the Wyoming women have not been afraid to stand for office. Two years ago Miss Ella Knowles ran for attorney-general of Wyoming and failed of election by a small number of votes. Some of the supporters claimed that she had been counted out, and others, although they did not vote for her, would not have been sorry of her election, in order to see what kind of an attorney-general she would have made. In the election last fall Mrs. Malvy, as candidate for presidential elector, was defeated by a small majority.

Women voted in the territory of Utah until excluded by the Edmunds Law. However, the convention of 1895 to form a state constitution agreed upon a provision granting them suffrage. The new constitution was ratified by the people November 5, 1895. One of the first results has been the election of Mrs. Martha Hughes Cannon to the Utah Senate.

In 1893 the people of Colorado voted in favor of general woman suffrage. There were only three women in the last Colorado Assembly. They expect to do better next year.

The women of Kansas and Nebraska do

considerable voting. The Kansas women vote at all municipal elections, and in several towns a woman has been elected to the mayoralty office. A constitutional amendment providing for woman suffrage was defeated by the Kansas voters in November, 1894.

At the last election (November 3, 1896) a woman was elected to the office of prosecuting attorney of Brown County, Nebraska. Miss Mae Davison was nominated by the Populists and indorsed by the Democrats. The office of prosecuting attorney is rather a responsible, if not trying, position for a lady who is but twenty-five years old. It remains to be seen if Miss Davison will hold her own with the other sharp, shrewd lawyers of the Brown County bar.

The women of Washington have had their political disappointment. They voted in the territory for five years, and then a decision of the Supreme Court suddenly put an end to it. The whole question came up again, when the Washington State Constitution was submitted to the male voters. The woman suffrage provision was defeated by a comfortable majority. Many of the advocates of woman suffrage were surprised, and they hope for better luck next time.

Last year (1895) the movement met with defeat in two states—South Carolina and Massachusetts—under different conditions. A proposition to allow women to vote was defeated in the South Carolina Constitutional Convention. A majority of the voters in Massachusetts voted “no” on this question: “Is it expedient that municipal suffrage be granted to women?” “No” was voted by 186,976 men, and “yes” by 87,000; while 22,204 women voted “yes” and only 864 voted “no.”

Thus far woman suffrage has found but little encouragement in the large and important states of the Union; for example, in New York, Pennsylvania, or Illinois. The New York Legislature passed a law permitting women to vote for school officers, but in 1893 the act was declared unconstitutional; the reason being that the word “male” was used in the state constitution as a qualification of voters.

The convention to revise the New York State Constitution was held in 1894. The champions of woman suffrage were active and industrious. They canvassed the state both before and after the election. At one time they confidently expected to carry their point, which was to strike out the word “male” in the constitutional qualification of voters. However, the proposition was voted down in the convention by 97 to 58.

Oddly enough, the strongest and most persistent opposition to woman suffrage in New York came from women all over the state. Their written protests, which are said to have had no little influence in determining the matter, presented the anti-suffrage side in its best form.

For the sake of reference, and to sum up, we may add that women have some form of suffrage, usually as to taxation or election of school officers, in the following states: Arizona, Colorado, Delaware, Idaho, Illinois, Indiana, Kansas, Kentucky, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Montana, Mississippi, Nebraska, New Hampshire, New Jersey, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, South Dakota, Texas, Utah, Vermont, Wisconsin, and Wyoming.

It is interesting to note some of the meager forms of suffrage granted to women in several states. Thus, the only vote they have in Pennsylvania is on local improvements—that is, simply the right to sign or refuse to sign petitions. It is the same in Arkansas and Missouri, where woman suffrage means only signing or refusing to sign petitions for liquor licenses; while in Texas it refers to petitions for school officers. The Louisiana women can vote on the question of running railroads through parishes. Of course these concessions do not amount to much, and few women avail themselves of their privilege.

Going across the border, we find that women have suffrage in all municipal elections in Canada. They vote in Ontario for all elective officers except members of the Dominion Parliament.

Let us turn now to the European countries. It should be noted that widows are the most favored. In most places single and married

women are excluded from the elective franchise. However, in Great Britain—that is, in England, Scotland, and Wales—women, single and widows, have suffrage at all the elections except for members of Parliament.

The agitation for woman suffrage has been carried on in England with more or less result. When John Bright was alive the women had an able champion in the House of Commons, and no such eminent advocate has since risen to take his place. Many old English laws, which, to quote Mr. Gladstone's expression in his speech on the Woman's Suffrage Bill in 1871, give to women "something less than justice," have been swept away or repealed. Perhaps the most substantial benefit was the Married Women's Property Act, which redressed a great injustice. And yet, notwithstanding the agitation going on, and the work of woman suffrage societies, it must be confessed that the English political leaders and those who make the laws are averse to granting full suffrage to women.

The Swedish women have about the same voting rights as their English sisters, while in Norway the women have only school suffrage.

The only countries of Europe where women vote to any extent are in those places that we would least expect it; for example in Finland and Iceland. On the Continent the woman suffrage movement has made no great headway of late years. The women have no voting privileges to speak of in either France or Germany. In several European countries they are allowed to vote

by proxy. Thus, in the Austrian provinces women can vote for members of the provincial and imperial Parliaments, but by proxy. They can vote in person at local elections. The same is true of Russia, where women who are heads of households vote at local elections. As to the widows, they have the right to vote at municipal elections in Belgium, while in Italy they can vote for members of Parliament.

It is a "far cry" from Italy to Australia and New Zealand. But in Australasia women are marching on. They vote at the local elections in every province of Australia, and also at all the local elections in New Zealand. Two years ago the New Zealand women took a prominent part in the elections, and it is said that the worthiest candidates were defeated.

The only country in Asia where women can vote is in India; in the Madras and Bombay presidencies they have the right to vote at municipal elections. In Africa women can vote only in Cape Colony, where they are also allowed municipal suffrage.

Such, in brief, are the terms and conditions on which woman has thus far been granted the ballot at different times and at different places. The idea of legislators seems to be manhood as opposed to universal suffrage; or, as an eloquent English woman suffragist has expressed it, "all men not being either paupers or felons to be admitted to political power, no matter how ignorant, how poor, how degraded, in virtue of their manhood, while all women are to be excluded in virtue of their womanhood."

FASHIONS IN HYGIENE.

BY THE FAMILY DOCTOR.

OLD Lady Holland, of Macaulay's "Table Talk" fame, used to complain that "in the way of getting people to change their habits one French tailor can achieve results which twenty British professors could not hope to attain," and one of her countrywomen adds that if "slumming mantles" would only become

fashionable the redemption of the tenement population might yet be accomplished.

But if fashion fails to promote the work of moral regeneration, it might certainly be utilized for purposes of hygienic reform. The inoculation craze is emptying the winter resorts of Southern Europe, and even in America the relatives of a consump-

tive, as a friend of mine expresses it, have to "keep shotguns loaded and cocked for the special benefit of lymph pedlers." Eight years ago the popularity of the Adirondack highland camps threatened to ruin the sanatoria of the South; and at the beginning of this century only midnight flight could save a male dyspeptic from the risk of being sent out to sea—round Cape Horn, if no whaler happened to be in port.

The "Kneipp cure" has now started on its tour of the world. Only three months ago I was sitting on the porch of a lake-side hotel, watching the youngsters put up a swing, while a visitor showed the ladies his collections of tropical sea-shells and butterflies, admiring their bird-feather flowers in return, and in the midst of that sunshine the *paterfamilias* fell upon us with the announcement that the children must take off their shoes and stockings before the dew was gone and start running barefoot in the wet grass. "Don't you think it is about the right time?" he asked his wife.

Imagine an American lady in 1876, or even '86, being requested to indorse a proposition of that sort!

"What!!—run in the cold, wet grass—my children? and barefoot too? Are you in league with an undertaker? They would soon have to turn up their toes to the daisies, with a vengeance!"

But Mrs. D—— was a lady of the period. Grass-runners, she knew, had undoubtedly survived the strange experiment in more than one case, and she had seen pallid boarding-school maids chase the calf around the pasture till they dropped their chewing-gum and recovered their lost color, and above all, she remembered that meadow gallopades had become fashionable in Put-in-Bay and Long Branch.

"Why, yes," she said, "it must be near nine o'clock. It does seem a little chilly this morning" (with something like a revival of the old prejudice), "but you are right, it won't do to wait till the dew is all gone."

The children were sent to grass, and every step they took in that dew-drenched meadow, I think, was a step in a right

direction and will help to tramp a miserable, life-blighting delusion under foot and out of sight. It will help to settle the dispute about the real cause of "colds" and assist the recognition of the fact that catarrhs are caught only indoors, and are cured by outdoor exercise—the cooler the better.

I admit that in the gospel of Mr. Kneipp truth exists only in a highly rarefied state; the importance of the *dew* is wholly imaginary and rain or a good rubbing down with a towel and cold well water would serve the same purpose, but the benefit of the fashion in its present form rests on the indisputable practical proof that a combination of cold and moisture does *not* cause catarrhs, but tends to relieve them, besides stimulating the activity of the lungs and the digestive organs.

Though—who knows? the beneficial results of the prescription will perhaps be attributed to the incidental ceremonies.

"The Americans wash more than any other nation," a New Yorker told a pedler from the Mott Street colony of Syrian Mussulmen. "Yes, they do," said the turbaned oriental, "but"—after some reflection—"it will not avail them much unless they wash in the name of Mohammed, the Revealer, whose name be exalted."

Children, for all one can tell, will have to gallop in the name of Herr Kneipp, and those who run barefoot in a spirit of levity or in a common clover patch will be spanked as much as ever.

High mountain resorts, too, are getting popular, and such hotels as that on Look-out Summit or on the pinnacle of the Roan Mountain can certainly claim superior topographical facilities for being in the height of fashion; an altitude of 6,500 feet above tide-water can defy competition on this side of the Rocky Mountains, and the roads have generally been so well graded that a facetious manager could promise his patrons to get all their baggage up in good order—"with one exception, as no unbroken case of hay-asthma or chronic catarrh had ever reached the top of the mountain."

The word *Matamoros* (literally, "Kill-Moors") is said to have been derived from

the "sobriquet of a Spanish knight who had attained eminent proficiency in the art of separating the bodies of Moriscos from their misbelieving souls," but I doubt if the activity of that specialist affected the census of his native land half as much as the unholy zeal of the lunatic who puffed the sanitary virtues of absinth, or wormwood extract, till he succeeded in making it the fashionable beverage of Frenchmen and Frenchified Spaniards. In Paris alone the wretched fuddle is turning thousands of young dupes old before their time; in Barcelona it is superseding wine and coffee, in the French quarter of the City of Mexico coffee and *pulque*. It is the very quintessence of an unnatural drink, bitter as the wages of sin, and nauseous enough to warn any unbiased novice; but then it is in vogue, and they swallow it, choking and shuddering, till their better instincts yield to a morbid second nature, and they cannot steady their nerves, walk, talk, or write till they have turned their stomach into a wormwood tank.

Blest be the luck that has only afflicted Young America with a hot-water craze; it has no intrinsic merits, but in this world of compromises we cannot afford to be fastidious, and as compared with hot coffee, tea, or fire-water a cup of well water, boiled to the seething point, can do no harm worth mentioning, and leads us far in a right direction—indeed very near the ideal of a sanitary beverage.

"Have you ever reflected on a most suggestive lesson from the book of nature?" says an American educator—"the fact, namely, that a hundred different animals may eat a hundred different substances—nothing but flesh, some of them, nothing but vegetables, others—but they all drink water? Is it not a plain hint that there are only two really natural beverages: milk for young children and cold water for adults?"

"Plain, cold water" ought to recommend itself also from another point of view; tastes differ, but I would as soon consent to boil my ice-cream and my ripe grapes as my drinking water.

Perhaps the very circumstance of an

artificial modification has assisted the spread of that fashion and Professor Priessnitz, the apostle of the cold-water cure, would possibly have succeeded better if he had advised his disciples to cool their spring water with ice.

Fashion loves novelties and for the sake of change mankind has abandoned more than one preposterous custom; there was a time when the belief in the necessity of periodical bleedings was raging like an international epidemic; Lord Byron, much against his own misgivings, was literally bled to death by a wretch of a Greek quack; every village had its leech-pond, and Montaigne describes households where the floor after a doctor's visit resembled a butcher's shop. That latter circumstance has possibly helped to turn the scales of public opinion against the crazy doctrine; tidy housewives objected to the defilement of their carpets, and one of the first eminent physicians to heed that protest was Dr. Boerhaave, a native of ultra-cleanly Holland. Who knows if the pill-box and the bitters-bottle will not follow the lancet to the limbo of abandoned fashions? It is an encouraging sign of the times that non-medicinal sanatoria are steadily multiplying and can now be found in North Carolina as well as in northern Michigan.

The abolisher of the crinoline deserves a statue, and the sale of strait-jacket corsets is diminishing; but the human soul apparently cannot afford to board two dress-reform ideas at the same time, and while tight lacing is dying out the tight-shoe craze has revived in all its virulence and may bring us back to the standpoint of the fourteenth century, when dudes in full dress could only waddle, like ducks, because their shoes were about twenty sizes too tight in proportion to their length and turned up in front like Turkish sabers or pruning-hooks. But we must not despair; fashion has popularized *vox humana* cabinet organs and may yet introduce *pes humanus* shoes, with soles at least three inches broader than the present implements of torture.

Stoves—parlor stoves—have superseded the good old grate chimneys because, as

housekeepers say, an open fireplace cannot be made to look stylish; but what a mistake! The most beautiful house-warming contrivance I ever saw in my life was in the parlor of Miss Gerstacker, the favorite sister of the great traveler, who had brought his appreciation of wide-open chimneys from America, and knew that they beat any other plan for promoting ventilation. Her fireplace, with its concentric arches, resembled the entrance of a Gothic chapel, and was beautifully lined with glazed bricks

that could be washed like glassware and made to reflect every flicker of the beech-wood logs. Those logs rested on nickel-plated supports with ornaments representing Titans bending under ponderous shoulder-loads, and, besides, the nooks of the alcove afforded room for pictures of litmus paper that changed color with every change of temperature, and toy merry-go-rounds that were set in motion by the ascending air-currents. Let us organize clubs for chimney-corner socials.

SCIENTIFIC OPINIONS OF THE NOSE.

BY ERNST SCHUTZ.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE GERMAN "UEBER LAND UND MEER."

WHAT is it people have against the nose? Though they praise to the skies other features of the face, likening the eyes to stars and even to suns, making other poetical comparisons on the teeth and hair, they never devote a real song of praise to the nose. A poet never has been known, by me at least, in serious earnestness to celebrate the nose. At best we can only refer for serious poetical instance to King Solomon's songs, in which he earnestly compares the nose of his ideal love to the "tower of Lebanon which looks toward Damascus."

On the other hand there is no lack of reviling lampoons and satirical poems written about the nose. Indeed the poet Johann Christoph Friedrich Haug in 1804 wrote a whole book of spiteful epigrams about a single nose.

The common contempt for the nose is manifest in the many nicknames and titles of doubtful honor that have been applied to it. First of all are the names that in the least flattering manner point to an affinity with animals, such as hawk nose, ram's nose, horse nose, proboscis, pug nose, etc. Then the plant kingdom furnishes charming resemblances, such as cucumber, orange, onion, and carrot nose. Finally come the very common but none the less impressive epithets such as smelling horn, bugle, hook,

balcony of the face, chimney of the lungs, promontory, and so on—all names and signs that certainly do not tend to inspire our respect for the nose.

Let us now try breaking a lance in defense and, if possible, for the rehabilitation of this misunderstood, slandered, and despised organ. Let us open our tournament immediately with an examination into the esthetic properties of the nose.

Yes, smile if you will, cynical reader; even the ugliest nose has its quota of beauty. If you do not believe this you soon can convince yourself of it simply by considering even the most repulsive nose apart from the face.

The nose has the first place in human physiognomy. No beast has a nose proper, but only some analogous structure, flat and little separated, that rests on the region of the upper jaw. Even on the face of the most man-like ape the nose almost entirely lacks projection. Only the kahau has a projecting nose and it is of the proboscis variety, more like a caricature of the human nose.

The noble human nose is enthroned like a queen on the face and rules the realms of physiognomy as does no other feature. Indeed the beauty of the other features is regulated by the form of the nose, for even the most regular features lose their attrac-

tion when offset by an unlovely or misshaped nose.

For a long time the classic Greek nose has been regarded as the ideal shape and justly has been taken as a model of perfect beauty. However it should not be forgotten that a Greek nose should be accompanied by a Greek head—a conformity that is rare indeed in our times when the shape of the head shows a cross of almost all nationalities. In commenting on the various shaped noses a noted esthetic offers the following comfort:

"So long as a nose keeps within the bounds of our Caucasian race we must judge it with indulgent eyes and usually we will find that it is suitable to the face. The plain and troublesome noses are only those that are too long, too prominent, disproportionately large, broad, cleft, or humped; too strongly hooked or too suddenly rounded off; those open to the sky or flattened down; those consisting of a ball of flesh or a needlelike projection; noses with upright nostrils. Besides these varieties of the Caucasian nose are the Mongolian and Ethiopian types. The face into whose wide, prominent nostrils the sun can shine is never beautiful and suggests a death's-head. The *ensemble* must be taken into consideration in judging the nose; upon its harmony with the whole face, whether it be an eagle, hawk, Juno, Roman, Greek, pointed, or snub nose, depends whether it is beautiful or at least pleasing."

But what gives the nose its specially high value is its physiognomic importance. Indeed Lavater considered the nose to be one of the most unerring guides to a knowledge of persons; he called it "the distinguishing mark of the human face, the symbol of taste and of feeling," and in his questions on physiognomy exclaims: "Oh, ye princes, when ye choose your ministers first look to their noses! Gather about your throne those whose noses are strong in the upper part!" It is reported for a fact that Napoleon I. chose for his generals those officers who had aquiline noses, because he thought such had more courage and resoluteness.

The great significance of the nose as an

indication of character is implied in the common expression to "see beyond one's nose." The celebrated Charles Darwin was almost rejected from the tour around the world in the *Beagle* because to Captain Fitzroy the nose of the young naturalist seemed not to indicate enough energy for exploring. Later Darwin proved his competence for the work and in his works on the descent of man he repeats over and over that the nose of man is one of the most essential marks of difference between him and his four-handed ancestor.

The characteristics of the various shapes of nose according to physiognomy are as follows: The small flat nose, found mostly among women and called the *soubrette* nose, when occurring with an otherwise agreeable and fortunate build of features indicates a certain gracious and cheerful naivete, combined with an inconsiderate curiosity. Such a nose seldom is possessed by men, at least in Europe, and when it is it denotes nothing in their favor but shows an individuality characterized by weakness and deficient sagacity. A nose thick and flat is an unfavorable feature with men as well as with women, usually signifying that the character is predominated by material and sensual instincts; while a turned-up nose with wide nostrils bespeaks a vain, puffed-up disposition. Especially wide nostrils are a sign of strength, courage, and pride; small nostrils, of weakness and timidity. Noses large in every respect are found mostly among men and are masculine attributes, proclaiming the energetic character of the stronger sex. Among women a large, strongly modeled nose is rare and when it does occur it indicates a virago of a hard and unlovely disposition.

As to the principal types of the larger built noses, Carus, among others, tells us that the nose long drawn out generally is symbolic of the intelligent, investigating, and productive nature of a fine spirit. On the other hand the strongly bowed eagle or hawk nose, so called, which as a rule is combined with a less development of the fore part of the head and a correspondingly greater development of the back part of the

head, is the accompaniment rather of a strong will energy than of a strong preponderance in the understanding faculties of the mind. The spur nose with the wings of the nose very much drawn up and the eyes standing as near together as possible belongs to this category. What the thick, fleshy, red, swollen alcohol nose indicates speaks for itself. One point, however, must be conceded to this nose: it imparts to the whole countenance a glimmer of comfortable bodily condition and happy humor, characteristics which were able to stamp a Falstaff, in spite of his narrow materialism, as one of the most amiable creations of the immortal poet.

Exactly the opposite is indicated by the slender, pointed nose. A certain arresting and ossification of all fresh life, a dry sagacity and a denial of every warm dictate of the soul characterize this form of nose. Very often it is found with a pointed chin, and this combination is explained by the German maxim:

A pointed nose with a pointed chin,
There lives a very Satan within.

The nose is an almost infallible index of one's race and nationality. Those commonly recognized as national features are the Greek, the Roman, and the Semitic, then the bulky German, the undulating Bohemian nose, and the Russian potato nose. The Chinese, too, the Japanese, and the flat negro noses do not need an exhaustive description. As there are national noses so there are family noses. Who has not heard of an Orleans, a Hapsburg, or a Hohenzollern nose? If we would take the pains to make a little observation on noses in our own neighborhood we could easily verify these statements.

One often hears the expression that "nobody can help his nose." This statement lacks foundation, for the nose is a member very easily modified. This was long ago demonstrated by the Hottentot women, who pressed their infants' noses down to make them flat, because they considered this shape to be beautiful. In our own country, too, the nurses look after the nose of the newborn babe, drawing it out if too short, and

shaping it according to their ideas of beauty. It is noticeable that most noses have a slight inclination to the right side, which may be considered merely a result of wiping the nose toward the right.

The nose is not inaccessible to "higher culture." The noted nose physician, Dr. Maximilian Bresgen of Frankfort-on-the-Main, says on this theme: "It is beyond dispute that during half of an individual human life the nose is capable of receiving a more noble form. The training of the individual, the culture of his intellect and character have a very considerable influence not only on the expression of the face in general but also on the bodily nature of the nose." Dr. Rossbach speaks on this point more in detail in his lecture on diseases of the nose, and after pointing out the anatomical structure of the different forms of noses says:

"Spiritual occurrences in a person's experience, such as the awakening of slumbering emotions, gradually give the nose a nobler modeling. Flat and upturned noses take on a more expressionless form with years, when their possessors are not often busy in thought or moved with emotion. This being true, a judgment as to the spiritual activity of the inmost soul certainly may be based to this degree on one's external appearance. A finely chiseled, noble nose may be one's birthright, inherited from his ancestors, and he himself by his strength of intellect as well as by his emotions may develop it to a still better shape. But a nose coarse by inheritance also may be ennobled by intellectual endeavors continued through a generation. The intellectually active city dwellers are distinguishable by their fine features and especially by their noble noses from the coarser-featured peasants. Of course the nose even of a typical peasant is refined by an energetic development of the muscles when such development is an expression of intellectual vigor."

After all that has been said what more important rôle could a feature have than that of the nose in performing its special tasks, especially the sustaining of human life? When a person has sunk to unthink-

ing rest in Morpheus' arms and all the external organs, even the ears, are off duty, the nose remains always at its post and by slow but sure inhalations of pure air and exhalations of impure air looks after the continuance of our existence.

For the good tone of the voice the nose is an indispensable factor. When an approved vocal teacher receives a new pupil he begins by testing the nose, for well he knows that he cannot gain the desired results with his pupil unless her natural sounding-board is healthy and of sufficient size. This is why nearly all important singers are found to have well-developed noses.

In ordinary speaking, too, we can realize what an important part the nose plays. We have only to notice the voice of one whose nose is stopped up with a cold in the head at the stage when he is said to "talk through his nose." This expression, by the way, is incorrect. He does not talk through his nose, because it is stopped up.

Since the early ages men have tried to compensate by artificial contrivances for the loss of this indispensable organ. In East India, even in the most remote antiquity, rhinoplastic was known, it being the art of restoring the structure of the nose from one's own living skin. Under Maratti the Brahmins gifted in surgery assisted unfortunate prisoners of war, who by an inhuman custom of war had been bereft of their noses, to obtain artificial noses. By slitting a three-cornered piece from the skin of the forehead they obtained an outside covering for the artificial nose. In the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries there were Italian physi-

cians who practised the art of rhinoplastic, but not by the India method. In this work they made use of the flesh from the arm or leg of the patient.

In later times the celebrated Prussian surgeon Dieffenbach has commanded the greatest attention by his "plastic operations." He possesses such skill that often he consults his patients as to whether they prefer the Roman or Greek nose. However, most of these artificial noses, as years pass by, become Slavic or potato noses, from shriveling and sinking in.

In regard to this misfortune many facetious anecdotes are yet told of Dieffenbach. For instance, a patient wished to be operated upon by Dieffenbach because the street youngsters always were shouting after him, "See, there goes the man without a nose!" A new nose having been built up, some time afterward the patient went again to seek the doctor's assistance because, his nose having sunk in so that in a sharp wind it flapped up and down, the street gamins annoyed him by calling out, "See, there goes the man with the nose!"

In modern times attempts have been made to remedy this lack of solidity and endurance in artificial noses by taking as a support for the transplanted flesh skin from the forehead together with a piece of the forehead bone. More durable and to be preferred to the autoplasic forms are the now very common caoutchouc noses, but they, like all the artificialities in the world, do not answer to all the demands.

It is best always to depart this world in possession of one's own natural nose.

THE POETS' IDEAL WOMAN.

BY AMELIA G. BISHOP.

THE poets from Homer to Longfellow have portrayed many types of women, and endowed them with pretty nearly all the traits and peculiarities that belong to the fair sex. By close observation or by happy intuition they have read the female heart and probed into its innermost cham-

bers. They have done more than expose woman's follies and weaknesses. With masterly skill and friendly appreciation they have pictured her as a creature of refined habits and manifold accomplishments. They have sketched her in her best moments and in her most heroic moods. They have made

her very woman. It is not too much to say that literature has done the race an inestimable service by handing down for us in fair outlines and warm colors the ideal woman. The great poets have left us in enduring verse their conceptions of her in the fourfold rôle of maiden, sister, wife, mother. To rehearse all that they have said of her physically, intellectually, morally, and spiritually would take us far afield. We can only glance at a few of the heroines that are most famous in song.

It is not easy to sum up in a word or two wherein consists the essence of femininity, for it resides in the combination of many instincts and attributes. Whatever else be requisite in the ideal woman she must have charm and modesty. These make her respected, admired, loved, and without these ideal womanhood does not exist. Around these naturally cluster the other graces and qualities which make her a treasure to be sought and a possession to be prized.

To be winsome and attractive is of primary importance. To be lovely is almost as much of an obligation as to be loving. Strength gained at the expense of attractiveness is a questionable advantage. Physical beauty enhances a woman's charm, but she may be charming without it if she have the beauty of goodness and the faculty of pleasing. In making herself charming, personal appearance, voice, and manner count for much. The indescribable something that attaches others to her is partly an inheritance, but it may be cultivated. Whether she be gentle born or not, she may become gentle. A pleasing presence, a sweet and noble disposition manifesting itself in gracious ways and kind words, in smiles and laughter—these make up much of the atmosphere that goes with the ideal woman. Of course dress may heighten her charm or detract from it, but it cannot entirely rob her of the fragrance and inspiration of her native womanliness.

But charm is not enough without modesty, which cannot exist without purity of heart and of soul. To be immodest and brazen is to forfeit respect. The ideal woman makes her presence felt without being ob-

trusive. She wins her way by keeping her delicacy, by not surrendering chastity. Herein is half the secret of her fascination. To lose modesty is to lose the most precious jewel in the crown of womanhood.

The women of classical poetry, especially of the Greek epic and drama, are familiar to us. Homer immortalized the names of Helen, Andromache, Penelope, and Nausicaa. Helen heads the list of charming women whose lives are enshrined in the memories of men through the minstrel's suggestive lines. With all her failings Helen never quite lost the sense of modesty. Andromache is a specimen of Homeric womanhood at its highest and best. The old harper celebrated her virtues and excellencies in words whose music lasts—they are so sweet. The worthy wife of Hector stands before us in her superb physical development, devoted to child and husband, feeling a just pride in the bravery and prowess of her warrior spouse, and solicitous for his safety in battle. And Ulysses was equally fortunate in wedding a woman whose name has long been a synonym for wifely fidelity and good sense in the management of her household. Nausicaa, stately and beautiful, modest and discreet, is in the fullest sense of the term a princess among maidens. She has no superior.

Antigone is the ideal woman as a sister, performing what she thinks is a sacred duty in the face of the king's stern command. She moves across the page of Sophocles an idealized figure, and yet in the main faithful to life. Once known, Antigone is never forgotten. She is of the stuff of which martyrs are made. With her is associated in our minds the Electra of Greek tragedy, who seems almost like the personification of sisterly love and devotion. Except the incomparable Isabella of Shakespeare there are no sisters in modern poetry to be placed beside them.

Virgil's Dido is deficient along the line of modesty. There is a trace of masculinity in her composition that lessens her charm as a woman. However commendable may be the enterprise that she displays it is attended by too much self-assertion. She

illustrates the truth that it is positively dangerous for a woman to be unwomanly.

In portraying what is elemental in woman's nature modern critics have not excelled the ancient, but in one respect there has been a change. The classical poets did not make so much of the emotional side of woman. Among the ancients there was indeed affection expressing itself in desire and sympathy, but romantic love is a more recent development. The lover and the sweet-heart are all but unknown in the epic and the drama of Greece and Rome, and there is but little of the tender sentiment.

Christianity and chivalry both contributed something to form a new ideal of woman. In the Middle Ages, when men were fired with stronger passions and enthusiasms, it became the fashion for minstrels and knightly lovers to use extravagant language in praising the fair sex. The damsel of high degree and the grand dame, if not transformed into goddesses, were elevated to a higher place than was accorded to the women of antiquity. The medieval worship of ladies had the effect of enriching the poets' ideal of woman. The feudal conception of her gradually gave way for another, which makes her less ornamental and more useful. The nineteenth century girl does not receive the fantastic homage of the olden times, but her worth is none the less appreciated. She is by no means perfect, yet it is evident that a different and better type of woman has been evolved along with advancing civilization, if the poets of later centuries are good judges.

A precious legacy of sacred and chivalric sentiment was bequeathed to us by Dante in the "Divine Comedy." The blessed Beatrice is more than human—she is invested with almost angelical traits. The light of heaven is on her face. A celestial luster glows in her eyes. All of gross and earthly has been sublimated and etherealized away. It is a portrait of a saint in glory.

Laura must have been an extraordinary woman to have inspired the passionate love poems of Petrarch. Platonic attachments may not be a thing of the past, but they are not so common now as in the

halcyon days of romance. The perusal of Petrarch's sonnets brings home to us the fact that we live in a less sentimental age than the fourteenth century. From our point of view his raptures over a married woman, the mother of ten children, are simply unaccountable. In medieval Italy it was different. Evidently Laura was a lady of marked personal worth and exquisite beauty, but beyond this our idea of her is somewhat vague, notwithstanding all that was written of her by her poet lover.

Chaucer's Emelie, Canace, and Constance have the feelings, instincts, and graces of true ladies. How beautiful is his comparison of the good wife Alceste with the daisy, "crowned al with white"! Dorigene, in the "Franklin's Tale," may well be called the ideal wife of the age of chivalry. What portrait of a sprightly, winsome English girl is more felicitous and lifelike than that of Blanche in the "Book of the Duchess"?

I saw her dance so comelily,
Carol and sing so swetely,
Laugh and play so womanly,
And looke so debonairly,
So goodly speke and so frendly,
That certes, I trow, that nevermore
Was seen so blissful a treasure.

This type of maidenhood, so artless and sweet, stands in pleasing contrast to that of the prioress, a gentle-born lady of prim, dignified mien. The miller's daughter, described in the "Reeve's Tale," was a girl well developed physically, but wanting the delicately chiseled form and fine moral sense of Tennyson's heroine.

In the long roll of Shakespeare's female characters there are many illustrious names. Miranda, Perdita, Juliet, Rosalind, Beatrice, Cordelia, Ophelia, Portia, Imogen, Hermione, Desdemona, and Queen Katherine—the myriad-minded dramatist gave the world no fairer creations of his genius than these most lovable maids and loyal-hearted wives.

In the garden of Eden one might expect to find the ideal woman, if anywhere, but Milton's conception of Eve before the fall is not all that could be desired. He has

overdone the matter of modesty. Eve would be more charming if she were more piquant. The Puritanic severity of the age made Milton too serious. Except the sportive nymph in "L'Allegro" his women are too demure and pensive. The modern heroine is more impulsive and vivacious.

Great is the difference between the sedate, dignified women of Milton and the lively, warm-hearted lasses of Burns. It may be, as Matthew Arnold complains, that the land of Burns is not an ideal country, yet surely the blooming Scotch maids, with their touch of humor and exuberance of spirits, are a redeeming feature in the otherwise rather somber world north of the Borderland. In many of his love-lays Burns grows so enthusiastic over "the lovely dears" that he fails to characterize them very definitely. But "handsome Nell" seems to have pretty nearly realized his ideal:

A bonnie lass, I will confess,
Is pleasant to the e'e,
But without some better qualities
She's no a lass for me.
But Nelly's looks are blythe and sweet,
And what is best of a,
Her reputation is complete,
And fair without a flaw.
She dresses ay sae clean and neat,
Both decent and genteel;
And then there's something in her gait
Gars ony dress look weel.
A gaudy dress and gentle air
May slightly touch the heart,
But it's innocence and modesty
That polishes the dart.

The girls and matrons of Burns may be lacking in spirituality, but they certainly

have a wealth of charm and susceptibility.

Something is wrong with most of Byron's heroines, and the trouble with them is fundamental, as with himself. The meaning and purpose of life do not appear to have dawned upon them. They are too voluptuous, too far lost to the sense of shame. Their grace and witchery of manner, their delightful naturalness and loveliness, cannot compensate for the loss of innocence, which is too often accompanied by utter collapse of the whole moral structure.

In striking contrast with Byron's sensual beauties are the women of Coleridge, Wordsworth, Scott, Browning, Tennyson, and Longfellow. The womanhood delineated by them is the same as that of old, and yet not the same. In many ways Christianity and chivalry have altered the world of to-day, and our poets have drawn feminine characteristics such as the pagan bards never conceived. Religion and romance—these two elements have entered into the very being of the modern woman. These two strands have been woven into the texture of her nature, and it is not precisely what it was before. The religious and sentimental side of her has been deepened and intensified. The ideal women of our latter-day singers have gained breadth nor failed in childward care. There has been an addition to their thought, to their feeling, to their outward condition, which makes them more to themselves and to the social order. In them are blended the dearest traditions of the past and the best hopes of the present.

THE ETHICS OF DRESS.

BY ANNA HUNTER BARRON.

IT is very easy to push an argument to harmful exaggeration either for or against what is generally meant by the phrase "fashionable dress" as applied to feminine self-decoration and economy. There can be no rigid limit set to the style, the substance, or the cost of woman's

apparel, for what would be sinful extravagance under one set of circumstances would perhaps not justly attract adverse criticism under widely different conditions. Nor can we formulate a rule by which the moral effect of dress may be regulated with exactness.

There is, doubtless, a better criterion than an immovable formula made to measure conduct by universal application. Good taste and a sincere regard for the rights, the condition, and the feelings of others will generally suggest proper conduct under any circumstances. For it is not so much mere extravagance and display in dress, as the spirit of selfishness impelling the extravagance and display, that interferes with human happiness and causes those ills against which wise men and women have in all ages lifted their voices when denouncing "costly raiment" and the vanity of "fashionable" life.

One great stumbling-block, the greatest, perhaps, in the way of reform, is the extreme temper of reformers. We set out to modify and correct life; but we forget that a violent change is neither easy to make nor well suited to human conditions. We insist upon everything, will have nothing less than a complete surrender to all of our terms; consequently we see the world refuse utterly to be influenced by us. The old saying that half a loaf is better than no bread applies to reform. Indeed the golden mean rarely ever falls much short of adequacy in matters wherein conflicting tastes, judgments, and interests naturally urge people toward opposite extremes. This is notably true with regard to almost every restriction which has been proposed in the matter of dress for women. Reformers demand too much, use language too violent, make their criticism too sweeping, exaggerate too much, and so fail to have due influence.

Is fashionable dress for women altogether a folly? The extremist answers, yes; but is the extremist right? The demand of fashion is to-day the most powerful agent of manufacture, trade, and commerce. It gives employment to millions of men and women, it distributes millions upon millions of money, it feeds and clothes the inmates of thousands of lowly houses. How many poor women and girls would be out of employment the moment that the demands of feminine fashion were so modified that what is generally called "fashionable ex-

travagance" no longer existed! How many shops would close, and what a panic there would be! A moment's thought must convince every clear mind that it is not radical and destructive change in the fashions and cost of dress, but a reform of certain selfish habits connected with social manners and intercourse, that is needed.

The person who closely observes will discover very early in his experience of social life that dress is a potent factor in the problem of success; and this is particularly true in the case of women. To be eccentric is not attractive, and there is no eccentricity more unpleasing than that which expresses itself in dress. The woman who disregards fashion runs the risk of losing her influence, even with those who most deplore frivolous and costly display. A woman well dressed and well bred never seems overdressed; but the best-bred woman in the world is at a disadvantage when her clothes give her the appearance of disregarding the just requirements of her social station. It is, indeed, an affront to good taste and a mark of disrespect to one's associates for one to assume absolute independence in this regard. The deepest base of society is conformity to established usage.

But it is easy to mistake vulgarity for its opposite, so far has the passion for mere show projected itself into that sphere of life commonly regarded as the highest. In our struggle for money we have come naturally to the point of identifying social eminence by the badges of wealth, so much does the ability to entertain, to acquire social influence, to attract marked attention, depend upon a liberal purse. Moreover, wealth gives leisure for those conventional observances upon which society is necessarily so largely based; it affords also all the luxuries dear to the average human taste, and, along with these, unlimited opportunity to indulge in every form of vice.

And here we shall discover the line separating a reasonable and justifiable regard for fashionable dress from a vulgar passion for a costly and viciously selfish display of personal adornment, often taking

on the expression of shameless self-advertisement. The consciousness of being well dressed is debased by folly to a vain sense of standing forth to be stared at as the frame upon which are displayed the wonders of Parisian dressmaking and the cunning of lapidary and lace-maker. The difference is not well enough understood. Many good women never dream that in making themselves the envy of their circle on account of their excessively costly clothes they are actually doing a vulgar thing. Vanity is always vulgar, and rivalry in dress surely is a very low vanity at best; at worst it sinks beneath respectful consideration.

There is a fine moral quality expressed by the old phrase *noblesse oblige*, signifying that the superior is bound by his position to take humane cognizance of the rights and feelings of the inferior. Those who are rich enough to indulge in all the luxuries of dress should feel their obligation not to set a bad influence going among those who are not rich enough to follow their example. Half the misery relating to social matters would be eliminated by such a change in the conduct of rich people as would modify to a reasonable extent the present struggle for preeminence in extravagant dress. The ambitious poor strive to imitate the ambitious rich; ruin is the result in numberless instances.

To the logical mind it is clear that reform must begin at the top and work its way downward; for we cannot hope to see the weaker class influence the stronger. Those who are entrenched behind breastworks of wealth, culture, and all that unhindered opportunities can command are not likely to take advice from the less fortunate; the initiatory is with the powerful; until they move there can be no reform. For even in the most democratic life possible to human

society the patrician exists, leads, becomes the model; and what that model expresses is really the end of aspiration in the hearts of the middle and lower classes. Inability on the part of these less fortunate classes to attain to the model's estate, hollow and bitter as it is, has been and will continue to be the cause of dissatisfaction, despair, anarchy, until the influence of the rich shall be turned into less selfish and demoralizing channels.

But it is altogether unfair to charge all the evils of feminine display in dress to the class which, for mere custom's sake, we call the upper. We all have our responsibility to shoulder—our part to bear in every reform. Why should poor people take pattern of the rich in matters of dress? What right has one class to set the pace for another? Reasonable independence is always wholesome, especially so in matters of personal economy. A woman may dress within the limits of prevailing fashion and yet easily avoid what she cannot afford. To do this, however, she will have to discard every thought of out-dressing her neighbors; she will have to be content with a frank and unselfish, albeit merely tacit, acknowledgment of her limitations. Moreover, being right-minded, she will feel a comfort in taking the honest course by which the deception of assuming what does not rightfully belong to her is avoided.

The golden rule by which dress should be governed cannot be easily laid down for all cases. Cardinal points to be observed are that mere display is always vulgar, that fine clothes bought at the cost of one's conscience are never lightly worn, that simplicity is the highest expression of taste, and that inexpensive dress worn in the spirit of unselfishness will win your way where a queen's royal robes would fail.

CURRENT HISTORY AND OPINION.*

NEW YORK'S NEW GOVERNOR.



FRANK S. BLACK.
The New Governor of New York.

is said to be a man of domestic tastes and given to taking his recreations in company with his family.

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

The brief inaugural address of Governor Black is a manly utterance whose sincerity and elevation of sentiment will command the respect of the whole people. It shows that a full-grown and strong man entered upon the duties of the governorship yesterday; a man who will be brave enough and sturdy enough to resist and spurn the influences to which feebler natures have yielded so pusillanimously. Governor Black seems to be of the mettle of which there is special need at this time. The people are tired of political slops. They want strong meat for men.

The Evening Post. (New York, N. Y.)

Of Mr. Black, the incoming governor, we say but little, for we know next to nothing. His nomination and Bryan's, both being completely unknown men, were the first conspicuous instances of the breakdown of our nominating system. Of neither of them did the general public know anything until one great party chose one of them for the presidency because he invented a taking metaphor, and another great party chose the other for a governorship because he had successfully prosecuted a murderer.

THE TURKISH QUESTION.

TO THE sultan's anxiety on account of the increased energy of the powers to bring him to terms the Young Turks' party has added the terror of an insurrection. On December 19 the Russian ambassador, M. de Nelidoff, representing the great powers, in a personal audience with the sultan urged his enforcement of reforms and the assurance of amnesty to Armenian prisoners. Furthermore he warned the sultan that any tampering by the Porte with the revenues allotted to defray the Turkish debt would immediately bring about English control of the finances of the Turkish Empire. The sultan insisted that he already had granted the reforms in question and would decree the release of Armenians in a few days. Accordingly many were set free. Two days later in Constantinople a number of army officers of high rank were seized for court-martial on the charge of complicity in the threatened uprising of the Young Turks' party, and fifty other officers fled the city. Those captured were tortured into informing on their comrades, and shortly the number of arrests was swelled to four hundred. Meanwhile, on December 21, the Marquis of Salisbury imparted to the assembled ambassadors to the English Foreign Office the result of the English government's deliberations on Russia's latest proposed plan for joint intervention. Decisive action is anticipated when these ambassadors shall have reported to their governments and these in turn shall have instructed the representatives of the powers at Constantinople.

* This department, together with the book "The Growth of the French Nation," constitutes a special C. L. S. C. course, for the reading of which a seal is given.

The Philadelphia Inquirer. (Pa.)

It will be noticed that in all that has been said to the sultan by the Russian ambassador, who has been constituted the mouthpiece of the other representatives of the powers, particular stress is laid upon the declaration that if the revenues ceded for the payment of the Turkish debt should be touched European control of the finances of the empire would become inevitable. The truth seems to be that there is little thought for Armenia and for the protection of foreigners in Turkey, and that the whole energies of the powers, under the guidance and advice of Russia, are to be devoted to the task not of directly carrying out religious and social reforms but of safeguarding the millions of money invested in Turkish securities and railroads. It is evident from all that can be learned as to the situation that Russia is the governing factor in Turkish affairs, that nothing will be attempted to be done without her consent, and that if the sultan should refuse his consent to any measure of control, financial or otherwise, by the powers, it is to her that the world may look for decisive action. The declaration of the sultan to the ambassadors that he might be the last of the caliphs but that he would never be a second khedive may mean that he will yet proclaim a holy war, and it may be that if any further delay is granted to him the Turkish reformers will rise and depose him. In any case it is certain that news of the most stirring character may be expected from Constantinople any day.

Zion's Herald. (Boston, Mass.)

Russia's leadership in this matter has given ground for the conjecture that England has reversed the policy for which the Crimean War was fought and is willing to grant to Russia egress from the Black Sea. If the *quid pro quo* in this case be a guarantee that she may continue to hold Egypt England may feel confident that her retention of that slice of African territory with its canal will enable her to balance whatever advantage Russia may gain by a free outlet to the Mediterranean.

Times-Union. (Jacksonville, Fla.)

The Russian bear is licking his chops in anticipation of the meal he soon expects to make of Turkey, and in the meantime England looks on with a rueful countenance. The day of the sultan's power is growing short, but if Russia can suppress the Armenian atrocities her protectorate over Turkey will prove a blessing to humanity.

Novoye Vremya. (St. Petersburg, Russia.)

The last vestige of this enmity must and shall vanish in the interest of all, for all must combine against the common enemy—England. Divided, the powers are the obedient servants of the Briton, and divide them he will if it can be done. The torrents of blood shed in Asia Minor served to turn the attention of Europe from Egypt. The powers must cross England's plans by refusing to go to war over Turkey. The time has come for France, Germany, Austria, and Russia to regulate the eastern question without consulting England.

MR. BRYAN'S LECTURE TOUR.

MR. WILLIAM JENNINGS BRYAN brought his projected lecture tour to a sudden close with the completion of the first lecture. This was given on December 23 in Atlanta, Ga., where free silver received strong support during the recent presidential campaign. Entitled "The Ancient Landmarks," it was directed against trusts, unequal taxation, and the use of money in politics. It was not the impassioned address expected of this speaker, but was a serious, instructive lecture, lacking the flights of oratory and partisan drives that aroused enthusiasm in his campaign speeches. Various reasons have been given for his resignation.



WILLIAM JENNINGS BRYAN.

The Philadelphia Inquirer. (Pa.)

Mr. Bryan's first venture as a paid lecturer does not seem to have been a great success. It was fair to assume that in a city like Atlanta, where his peculiar financial views have long been advocated by the leading newspaper, he would draw a crowded house. The dispatches, however, say his reception was a "frost" and foreshadow the canceling of his contract. Frankly there was no reason why Mr. Bryan should have succeeded upon the lecture platform. If report spoke correctly he chose a rejected political issue as the main theme of his discourse. This was in itself an error of judgment. He had thrashed the subject over and over again during the recent campaign without shedding any new light upon it. Even his vaunted oratory was disappointing, his failure in New York being admitted by his friends. Add to this the fact that

the lecture platform is no longer as popular as it ought to be, and we have the reasons for his unfortunate experience. There will be no sympathy for the jobbers who thought they could bargain his notoriety for gain, nor will there be any regret for him if he continues to force his repudiated notions of public affairs upon the people in the form of lectures. The people are weary of them.

The Atlanta Constitution. (Ga.)

It was a fitting moment for all Democrats to lay aside their differences and come together for the purpose of paying tribute to a man who is the most typical political leader of his time and the most unselfish advocate of the people's cause, and our citizens took advantage of it. Gold and silver men joined together to welcome Mr. Bryan. It was characteristic of the great leader of the party that

he should seize the opportunity to declare that he was not wedded to any particular method of reaching the end and aim of democratic government, but would welcome any method that produced the desired result—that result being the prosperity and happiness of the people. This is democracy of the highest type—the end and not the means.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

We take leave to say that the oratorical competition is not "panning out" as the lovers of true eloquence had been led to hope and expect. There should have been by this time at least a thousand orators in full blast all over the country, with an equal number of silver clubs organized in as many counties, and every one of them hard at it "keeping the enthusiasm going till election day in 1900."

CUBA AND THE UNITED STATES CONGRESS.



GENERAL JOSÉ MACEO.
Leader of the Cuban Revolutionists.

THE announcement of the Cuban general Maceo's murder on December 7 near Punta Brava, while he was conferring under a flag of truce with the Spanish leader, Major Cirujeda, caused a storm of angry denunciation against the Spaniards to sweep over the United States. The news came as a climax to the impatience of Congress with President Cleveland's conservative Cuban policy as reiterated in his annual message of December 7. On December 9 three joint resolutions were offered in Congress calling upon the United States executive to recognize Cuba's independence and take speedy action to end the war on that island. More resolutions of like import were offered on December 14, and on various days debates arose concerning Secretary Olney's statement that the Constitution does not empower Congress without the president's authority to recognize the independence of a foreign country. On December 31 General Estrada Palma of the Cuban *junta* of New York officially announced the death of General Maceo, but

later advices insist that the hero is recuperating from his wounds. Whether with or without their leader the Cubans have managed to outgeneral the Spanish and on December 25, under Dr. Pedro E. Betancourt, brigadier of the patriot army, in an all day's engagement near the town Cuba Mocha they defeated and routed the Spaniards, who left one hundred and fifty dead on the field.

REPUBLICAN COMMENT.

The Dispatch. (Pittsburg, Pa.)

The closing paragraph of the portion of the message devoted to Cuba furnishes the admission that when the effort to maintain Spanish supremacy in Cuba has reached the stage of complete failure there will then be a plain duty for the United States to act. But the fact is that, judged by all civilized and Christian standards, that failure is fully demonstrated at present.

Philadelphia Press. (Pa.)

The old administration is closing its work and the new administration is not yet installed. Is it fair to either to load the one and to forestall the other? Congress may make a declaration, but everything growing out of it must rest in the president's hands. It will be no service to the Cuban

patriots to embarrass and complicate our own government in choosing an inauspicious hour for a doubtful declaration on their behalf. When we act we want to act with united counsels in an effective manner along a line where we can sustain ourselves.

Baltimore American. (Md.)

If the United States is to establish a virtual protectorate, why the fiction of Spanish supremacy? American diplomacy does not run in such channels.

Boston Journal. (Mass.)

The military and political conditions in Cuba do not warrant an immediate recognition of independence. Recognition at this time would not carry the moral weight that it would later. It would not help the Cubans so much as if it came at the

president's own initiative and not by congressional compulsion.

Times-Star. (Cincinnati, O.)

The contention that if the Cuban resolution passes both houses of Congress, is vetoed by the president, and then passed over his veto the president will be bound to execute it, "just as he is bound to carry out any other law enacted by Congress," would be unanswerable if by this resolution Congress were not usurping an executive function. Obviously a president cannot be bound by any act of Congress that undertakes to strip him of a constitutional prerogative.

Boston Traveler. (Mass.)

In this particular matter the position assumed by the president may be of little moment in so far as this government's future attitude toward Cuba is concerned, but the precedent his course will

establish, if it is not successfully challenged, is dangerous. It is a usurpation of the rights which the Constitution gives to the people, who in turn intrust it to the men whom they select to represent them in Congress. It is the attempted substitution of Clevelandism for the democratic form of government, and it should receive a stern rebuke.

The Cleveland Leader. (Ohio.)

Cuba ought to be free. Cuba ought to be helped. Cuba needs money. Money will assist Cuba more than will American volunteers, more than will a hundred resolutions of Congress. With money the armies of Gomez and of Maceo can be armed, equipped, fed, and transported. Money will buy the insurgents ships of war. Money will give the Cubans a chance to organize a government and after their government shall have been organized this country can properly and lawfully recognize it.

DEMOCRATIC COMMENT.

Baltimore News. (Md.)

There is no "defiance of Congress" whatever in Mr. Olney's statement; there is not the remotest indication of any desire even to stretch the "civil power" of the president, not to speak of assuming a "dictatorship" of it. The question raised by Mr. Olney's statement is one of actual fact; he may be right, or he may be wrong. If he is right, it was not only entirely proper for the secretary to make the clear and vigorous statement which he has given out, but it was his highest duty to do so. For if, in point of fact, the president will not acknowledge the power of Congress to recognize the so-called republic of Cuba, it is of the utmost public importance that this fact be made known at once.

Chicago Dispatch. (Ill.)

There is no question of this country's right to recognize Cuba as an independent state—a sovereign power. Expediency may cry out against intervention in the Cuban rebellion, but we have the right to do as we please in the matter of recognition.

Richmond Times. (Va.)

The advocates of Mr. Olney's proposition based themselves entirely upon the claims that the executive department of the government has always heretofore exercised the prerogative of acknowledging foreign governments that we are to have relations with. So far as the past practise is concerned it has been simply permissive. The legisla-

tive department has had control over the subject all the time, but it was found convenient to allow the executive to control it, and so nothing was said about it. But now, when the legislative thinks an occasion has arisen for it to assert its powers under the Constitution, no one is to be heard to say that it has allowed its powers to lapse by disuse. No legislature can allow such a thing as that to happen.

Knoxville Sentinel. (Tenn.)

Secretary Olney is undoubtedly correct in the assertion that all matters of diplomatic relations with foreign countries are under the direction of the executive, for such has been the custom in this country from the beginning. It does not appear, however, that it would be impossible for Congress by resolution to take upon itself this power. If the majority in favor of doing so is strong enough to override the president's veto it can not be seen that such action would be unconstitutional.

Brooklyn Eagle. (N. Y.)

Into the consequences of a war with Spain it is now pertinent to inquire. It is sufficient for the time being to say that in our judgment the action of the Senate committee was an egregious blunder and one which the intelligent sentiment of the country cannot easily forget and ought not to condone.

The World. (New York, N. Y.)

There is too much of "business" and not enough of sympathy with aspirations of liberty in the message.

INDEPENDENT COMMENT.

Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

The rumor that Maceo still lives is persistent and its latest form is very circumstantial. It is now said that he was shot, but not killed, and, having been removed to a place of safety, is now recuperat-

ing. This account reconciles Zertucha's story with the failure of the Spanish to produce Maceo's body. Still the rumor is only a rumor and the balance of probability favors the original story of Maceo's death.

The Argonaut. (San Francisco, Cal.)

We congratulate the American people upon this interregnum. Whatever may be the screeching of sentimental newspapers, the frothing of senile senators, and the raving of representatives, there is always a brake upon the federal government. This time it is the executive. It is another proof, if one were needed, of the great wisdom of the forefathers when they devised our present system of government.

Indianapolis Sentinel. (Ind.)

If the United States attempts any settlement of the Cuban question it must intervene. The recognition of independence in this case is a cheap farce unless it involves future intervention, and it is the more transparent as a subterfuge because there is clearly nothing to recognize under the law of nations. The only logical action is a declaration that our commercial and other interests require intervention—practically a declaration of war.

FOREIGN COMMENT.

The Standard. (London, England.)

Spain would better accept Mr. Cleveland's friendly counsel, as Mr. McKinley is not likely to be less exacting than Mr. Cleveland. The Monroe Doctrine is making great strides. It is a large, bold policy, not quite free from danger.

Handelsblat. (Amsterdam, Holland.)

There is much talk of the recognition of the Cubans as belligerents on the part of the United States. Considering the present temper of the Spaniards, it may be assumed that such an act would lead to a war with Spain.

Journal des Débats. (Paris, France.)

In spite of the exertions of the jingo papers, the American people will recognize that there is some discrepancy between the assertion that Spain is powerless and the fact that over a hundred million dollars were given to the government for purposes of national defense, while there is also no lack of men. The Americans will see in this an excellent reason to leave Spain alone. And that would end the Cuban revolution. For this revolution cannot be kept alive without money, and your practical American has no intention to throw good money after bad.

The News. (London, England.)

Lord Salisbury is thought to have yielded far too

much, and there will be many voices urging Spain to the policy of "no surrender." It is to be hoped they will not prevail. Home rule in Cuba would be the best thing for the Cubans and the best thing for Spain. The contest is ruinous. Such a solution of it would be final and satisfactory.

The Globe. (London, England.)

Spain has endured much contumely from the great republic, but there are many indications that this passive submission to insult will not last much longer. If Spain is goaded to uphold her honor by arms, the naval war might have results not at all agreeable to the American chauvinists.

España Moderna. (Madrid, Spain.)

Monarchy or republic, Spain has always been treated equally unjustly by the Americans. When the Spanish republic introduced reforms in Cuba, America interfered. We were preparing for a rule much superior to the institutions of the United States. We removed the social barrier which, in the United States, divides the liberated slave from his erstwhile master. We hoped to introduce purity in politics. But the nation whose notorious corruption has infected the entire American continent has never ceased to send its filibustering expeditions to Cuba, making it impossible for us to proceed with our reforms.

EX-CONGRESSMAN ROSWELL G. HERR.

In the death of Roswell G. Herr, which occurred December 18 at Plainfield, N. J., the Republican party loses one of its most eloquent and witty orators. Mr. Herr was born in Waitsfield, Vt., on November 20, 1830. In childhood he moved with his parents to Lorain County, O. Here he obtained his early education and taught school to help send himself through Antioch College, graduating from this institution in 1877. While still in college he showed considerable ability as a campaign orator. Upon leaving school he served two terms as clerk of the Court of Common Pleas in Lorain County, O. Meanwhile he studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1866. Then he went to eastern Missouri to engage in mining, continuing his speech-making in the political campaigns, and in 1872 entered upon the practise of law at East Saginaw, Mich. The eighth Michigan district sent him to Congress in 1878, 1880, and 1882, and he was known in the House and finally throughout the Union as a humorous, ready, and able debater. In 1884 he was defeated for reelection to Congress. In the presidential campaigns of 1888 and 1892 he stumped the country for Harrison. About the time of the latter campaign he joined the *New York Tribune* editorial staff, his productions being chiefly on tariff and currency questions. He had just returned East from a tour of speech-making in behalf of McKinley and Hobart when the illness occurred that led to his death. Two sons and two daughters survive him.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND RECOGNIZES THE NEW GREATER REPUBLIC OF CENTRAL AMERICA.

THE Greater Republic of Central America was formally recognized on December 23 in the name of the United States by President Cleveland, who received Mr. J. D. Rodriques as an accredited minister from the new government. Salvador, Nicaragua, and Honduras are the states federated in the new republic and by a provision of the constitution the word "Greater" will be dropped from the title when Guatemala and Costa Rica shall have joined the little union. For the present its representatives will hold their deliberative sessions in the various capitals taken in rotation. In his state paper of recognition President Cleveland says this action is taken "in the distinct understanding that the responsibility of each of these republics to the United States of America remains wholly unaffected." He continues, "I discern in the articles of association from which the Diet derives its power a step toward a closer union of Central American states in the interest of their common defense and general welfare, and I welcome it as the precursor of other steps to be taken in the same direction, and which it is hoped may eventually result in the consolidation of all the states of Central America as one nation for all the purposes of their foreign relations and intercourse."

The Argus. (Albany, N. Y.)

The union of the little states of Central America has been the dream of their enterprising statesmen for generations. It is the natural and inevitable outcome of geographical, political, business, and social relations. The petty animosities and rivalries that have stood in the way of this consummation at times have aggravated and at other times have mollified and moderated existing conditions.

The Kennebec Journal. (Augusta, Me.)

The attempt to form a close union of the Central American states is one which this country is disposed to encourage, and in this spirit has recognized the Greater Republic of Central America, though there is at present little to hope from such a union.

The Pioneer Press. (St. Paul, Minn.)

The provocative impulse toward the present union was given by Great Britain's overbearing conduct toward Nicaragua about a year ago, which revealed the necessity of such a combination as should make possible the maintenance of a bolder front in the presence of aggression from a stronger power. If now the petty jealousies between the several states and the schemes of personal aggrandizement on the part of political leaders, which have hitherto marked every attempt at union, can be put aside and everything else subordinated to a broad patriotism, then the new republic may ere long well deserve, not the awkward name of "Greater," but that of Great Central America.

THE CHARTER OF GREATER NEW YORK.

THE commission of fifteen members appointed by Governor Morton to draft a charter for Greater New York made public late in December the main provisions of the proposed charter. They are as follows: Legislative power will be vested in a municipal assembly, to be composed of two houses—a council or upper house of 37 members whose president is elected at large, and the remaining members by groups from 10 council districts and a board of aldermen of 104 members elected by groups from 22 senate districts. Members of both houses are elected for a term of two years. The powers of the assembly are in general the same as those of the legislative bodies already existing in the district to be consolidated. No expenditure of more than \$1,000,000 for a public work can be made without submitting the proposition to the voters of the city. No franchise for the use of streets may be granted for more than twenty-five years, though the privilege may be renewed for a similar period on a fair revaluation. Upon the termination of the franchise the plant of the grantee becomes the property of the city.

The central figure of the administration is the mayor, who has almost unlimited power during his term of two years. He appoints the heads of all the city departments excepting that of the department of finance, who is elected by the people every four years. The mayor may during the first six months of his term remove at will any administrative officer; after that time he can remove only on charges with the governor's approval. He is also given extensive veto power. A board of three civil service commissioners will regulate subordinate appointments, and no salaries are to be paid except to civil service appointees. The police department is to be directed by a board of four commissioners, no more than two of whom may belong to the same political party. This department is to supervise elections. The budget is to be drawn up by the board of estimates and then submitted to the municipal assembly for final action. The assembly cannot enlarge or insert items but may cut them down.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

The work imposed upon the commission was enormous and intricate, and the document which is issuing from their hands is of corresponding bulk and complexity. It is no reflection upon the men who have accomplished this monumental task in some fashion to doubt or to deny its perfection. It is a miracle if they have even half digested the subject. . . . With reference to the submission of the charter to the people we say: these three million people have an inalienable moral right to accept or reject an organic act profoundly affecting their welfare and destiny. If there is any hope of bringing this momentous transaction under safe conduct, we believe it will be welcomed by a great majority in every community whose credit and prosperity are at stake.

The Mail and Express. (New York, N. Y.)

The commission is doing heroic work with its brain and pen, not with its jaw. If it accomplishes something more than has heretofore been regarded as possible in a similar period, so much the more to its credit. No charter for our city could be perfect in its first form, and we expect numerous imperfections in this one. The easiest way to discover these is not by prolonged academic discussion, but by putting the new consolidation law in operation. The charter can be amended whenever and however it is deemed necessary in the light of experience. The processes for this are not more involved than the simplest legislative enactment. The plea for a referendum of the completed charter is absurd. Not one voter in 100 would read through the 700 pages of printed matter on the science of municipal government. Even the more intelligent, the better informed, and the more conscientious, while voting on the charter as a whole, would be guided largely by their indorsement of, or opposition to, a certain limited number of features. As a matter of fact, New York wants its charter at once, and in the future will be proud of the work now in course of construction.

The Evening Post. (New York, N. Y.)

Was there ever such a complex system of divided responsibility as this? First we have the state legislature at Albany, with sovereign powers over local or municipal matters. Then we have the municipal assembly, which in its composition will be simply another legislature, with certain powers, more or less restricted, but all subordinate to the state body. Then we have thirty or more smaller bodies, working under both the state and the municipal bodies, with some independent powers of their own. How would the people ever be able to fix responsibility for any particular act upon anybody? It would be passed from one to the other in a way that would delight the soul of every political trickster in the city. In fact nothing more de-

lightful in the shape of irresponsible or political machine rule could be devised. . . . It is impossible to find in this elaborate scheme for divided responsibility anything except a plan for purely partisan government.

The Brooklyn Eagle. (N. Y.)

The charter has been drafted under auspices that warrant the confidence not only of the people but of the political power or powers in control of the legislature. The commission has striven, in its own language, "to effect a consolidation of the various municipalities so that there may be no break or jar in the unity and integrity of the single corporation, and no lack of power and supremacy in its central government," and this we think it has done in a manner that entitles it to the most sincere commendation.

The Times-Herald. (Chicago, Ill.)

The feature of the charter of the Greater New York which represents the most radical departure from the modern tendencies of municipal government is the marked centralization of power in the chief executive. The various state legislatures have exhibited a striking inclination of late years to curtail the power of the mayors in the larger municipalities, particularly with reference to police control. . . . The plan for two legislative bodies is undoubtedly a wise provision, judged by past records of European municipal governments, and will afford a wise check upon hasty legislation, while the provision for the election of members of both houses at the same time and their retirement at the same time will obviate the possibility of having houses that are opposed to each other in political belief, and will make it impossible for one party to remain uninterruptedly in power.

The Herald. (Baltimore, Md.)

To lay down the principles of the fundamental law of a municipality which shall include five cities and a dozen or more incorporated towns is a task almost as great as that which confronted the framers of the United States Constitution. They have to provide for a larger population, for more numerous and expensive public works, and for matters which never disturbed the founders of the republic. It is an undertaking which might well embarrass the most intelligent men of the age. Judging, however, by the results worked out by the commission, the task has not been wholly unsuccessful, and indications point to the formation of a municipality upon and around Manhattan Island that will rival London in extent and surpass Hongkong in the number of its inhabitants.

The Inter Ocean. (Chicago, Ill.)

It looks as if Greater New York were on the eve of inaugurating a municipal experiment big and bright with promises of genuine reform, and that, be it remembered, comes of having the Republican party in control in state and city.

SWITZERLAND'S PRESIDENT ELECT.



DR. ADOLPH DEUCHER,
President Elect of Switzerland.

Dr. Deucher's career as leader of the nation. In 1896 he was given the vice-presidency of the federal council, which amounts to the vice-presidency of the Swiss Republic, and by this year's elections he again becomes president.

THE election of Dr. Adolph Deucher to the presidency of the Swiss Republic places at the head of that nation a man of tried mettle, Dr. Deucher having served in that capacity seven years ago. Dr. Deucher was born in 1831 at Steckborn, in the canton of Thurgau, Switzerland. He studied medicine and obtained the degree of M. D. in Heidelberg, Germany. Then he continued his medical studies at Zurich, in Switzerland, and Prague and Vienna, in Germany. He had taken an active part in politics from earliest manhood and in 1868 was made a member of the canton council. The next year he was elected to the prefecture of the council. From 1869 to 1873 he served as German member of the national council, thereafter employing his energies in his profession until his reelection to the national council in 1879. From 1882 till 1893 he was president of this council. In 1886 occurred his election to the federal council of Switzerland and in 1890 he was made president of the republic. The Swiss law of annual elections for president and the ineligibility of any president for two terms in succession interrupted but did not end

WESTERN BANK FAILURES.

THE question of national bank regulations is brought to the front by the failure of the National Bank of Illinois, in Chicago, on December 21, and the resulting failures of various other banks and business firms. According to the controller of the currency, Mr. James N. Eckles, these recent failures in the West and Northwest do not forecast a general recurrence of bank troubles. On the contrary he says: "The general situation for strength in the banking world of Chicago, for instance, could not be better illustrated than by the fact that, without previous expectation upon the part of the public there or elsewhere, the second largest national bank in the city could be closed and no other result follow than the failure of institutions for which it had long been the feeder." The panic was averted by the promptly produced proofs that the insolvency of this large bank was caused not by the general financial conditions but by reckless mismanagement on the part of the bank officers, aided by the non-interference of the directors, "though their attention had been individually called to the same and over their individual signatures they had promised to remedy the weak points in the bank's condition." The direct cause of the failure was the suspension of the bank from the privileges of the Chicago clearing-house upon the discovery that excessive loans had been made without proper security and the accounts falsified to hide the indiscretion. William A. Hammond, second vice-president but acting as president, who was responsible for these irregularities, committed suicide.

The Baltimore Herald. (Md.)

National banks, in consideration of the privileges which they enjoy, are hedged in with regulations. They are prevented from lending money on real estate or other collateral not readily convertible into money, and are subject to periodical examination by the government. In the very nature of things, however, the examinations can not extend into the details of every transaction. Such an inquiry would require months. To a large extent examiners must rely on the statements furnished by the banks, and the possibility of injudicious loans or poor management is not excluded. Yet the safeguards which the government saw fit to throw

around the system have served in all but a very few instances to insure depositors against losses. Even where directors and stockholders suffered, the guaranties exacted by the federal authorities and the reserve provisions sufficed to pay all claims after a time. Undenially, the record of national banks, upon the whole, is such as to entitle them, in a high degree, to the confidence of the people.

Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

Bad methods of banking, and incompetence and neglect on the part of directors, will inevitably produce a failure, however good the times may be. As an offset of these failures the controller submits the bank returns under the call of December 17,

which show that deposits are increasing and loans and discounts are expanding. This is convincing proof of the betterment of the situation. People are more willing to put their money in bank and the banks are loaning more freely because their confidence is returning.

Denver Republican. (Col.)

Nobody has ever failed yet because he had too much cash on hand, but a great many failures have been caused in the past and a great many more will be caused in the future by the inability of banks to pay their obligations in cash when urged to do so by large numbers of their depositors acting together. The best, easiest, and safest way to secure an expansion of our currency is through the remonetization of silver, and we hope that the in-

coming administration will prefer this scheme to an increase in the number of national banks.

Baltimore Journal of Commerce. (Md.)

These failures have not had any great demoralizing effect in the East as yet.

The Times. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

The idea that any kind of official inspection can dispense with the necessity of personal character, capacity, and judgment in the management of a corporation is altogether fallacious and dangerous. No doubt it prevents much dishonesty, through the certainty of detection; but a crime can only be detected after it has been committed, not before. It is the business of an examiner to recognize weakness in a bank; that the weakness exists is the directors' fault, and they should be held accountable.

GENERAL FRANCIS A. WALKER.

ONE of the most noted of all authorities on political economy, Gen. Francis Amasa Walker, died on January 5, of apoplexy, at his home in Boston, Mass. Born July 21, 1840, in Boston, he accompanied his family when he was three years of age to North Brookfield, Mass. In 1860 he was graduated with honor at Amherst College and then studied law at Worcester, Mass. When the Civil War broke out he joined the Union Army as sergeant-major in the Fifteenth Massachusetts Volunteers, but on September 14, 1861, was appointed adjutant-general of Gen. D. M. Couch's brigade, with the rank of captain. He rose to major, then to colonel, on the staff of the Second Army Corps, under the same general, and continued to serve in this corps under Gen. G. K. Warren and Gen. Winfield S. Hancock successively, until his capture at Ream's Station, Va., on August 25, 1864, when he was taken to Libby Prison. Upon his release in January, 1865, ill health obliged him to retire from army life. On March 13 of the same year he was breveted brigadier-general of volunteers. Then he was in turn teacher of Latin and Greek at Williston Seminary, East Hampton, Mass., journalist at Springfield, Mass., chief of the bureau of statistics in the Treasury Department at Washington, D. C., superintendent of the ninth and tenth United States censuses, and Indian commissioner. In 1881 he accepted the presidency of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, which position he held at the time of his death. The degree of A. M. was conferred on him by Amherst in 1863 and by Yale in 1873; that of Ph.D. by Amherst in 1875, and that of LL. D. by Amherst and Yale in 1881; by Harvard in 1883, by Columbia in 1887, and by St. Andrews, Scotland, in 1888. He was United States commissioner to the International Monetary Conference in Paris in 1878, and was elected in 1878 to the National Academy of Sciences. He was president of the American Statistical Society and of the American Economic Association and an honorary fellow of the Royal Statistical Society of London. His best-known writings are his works on economics.

The Philadelphia Inquirer. (Pa.)

Gen. Francis A. Walker was a man of brilliant intellect, and as a statistician and economist is entitled to have his name placed in the roll of the world's economists. In his hands the "dismal science of political economy," as it has been sometimes misnamed, was invested with brightness and vitality. His genius illumined all that he wrote, no matter how abstruse, and those who have had the pleasure of hearing him talk in public know full well from what magic depths he seemed to draw his store of knowledge. Besides all this he was a patriot and defended the honor of his country on the field as bravely as he fought the financial heresies that sought to weaken the commercial and industrial power from which she has gained so large a measure of greatness.

Boston Journal. (Mass.)

Bostonians have known Gen. Francis A. Walker best as a gallant soldier and an accomplished educator, but his fame as an economist was world-wide. His international reputation chiefly rests upon his scholarly advocacy of bimetallism, and a particularly sorrowful aspect of his sudden death is that he was just about to take preliminary action in behalf of the United States toward the summoning of another international monetary conference. General Walker was a marvelously well-rounded man. In the early ardor of his youth he proved himself a brilliant soldier, winning recognition from such masters of the art of war as Sheridan and Hancock. No historian has written with more accuracy and insight than he of the great campaigns of the War of the Rebellion. It may be said in all truth and

justice that the federal census as we now know it is his creation. But the achievement for which he is honored most in this community and will be remembered longest is his successful administration of the Institute of Technology, which he has broadened out from an enterprise of mere local reputation to one of the foremost technical schools in all the world.

New York Evening Post. (N. Y.)

Gen. Francis A. Walker, whose sudden death is announced in this paper, was a man of varied activity and great usefulness, yet he is best known by his writings as an economist. His general work on "Political Economy" is distinguished by clearness of statement, wise arrangement of subjects, and a due sense of proportion, so that it has been

and is now more widely used as a text-book in American colleges than any other. Some of his positions are controverted as a matter of course, but these are presented in an attractive way, and usually with a fair statement of opposing views. His other words are more or less controversial in character, and although they have attracted more attention than his "Political Economy," and have given him a vogue as an original investigator in the science, it is not safe to assume that they will take rank among the classics.

The Times. (London, England.)

His death will be regretted in Great Britain almost as much as in America. He was one of the fairest and most reasonable of the advocates of bimetallism.

REBELLION IN THE PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

THE situation in the Philippine Islands grows continually worse for the Spaniards. The town of Manila is frequently approached under cover of darkness by rebel bands who fire with fatal results upon the Spaniards there in possession. An unsuccessful revolt of the natives at Cavite which resulted in a general massacre was reported in dispatches of December 15, but news of the same date stated that the natives of Mindanao Island, the largest of these islands next to Luzon, had joined the insurrection. Advances of December 23 reported the uprising to have spread throughout the whole colony, adding that scattered divisions of the Spanish forces were hemmed in by the rebels. On December 30 at Manila Dr. Rizal, who wrote the constitution of the Philippine League, was executed by Spanish authorities.

Harper's Weekly. (New York, N. Y.)

The troubles of Spain are the opportunities of other powers bent upon acquisition. Especially are her troubles in the Philippines the opportunity of Russia. The open port on the Pacific which has long been a prime object of Russia's diplomacy she seems now about to obtain, and through the action of the very power which, not even excepting Great Britain, is most opposed to her obtaining it. The Japanese look not so much with jealousy as with dread upon the expansion of Russia toward the Pacific upon the mainland of Asia, esteeming it as a threat against the integrity and the independence of their own island empire. An outlying naval station in the Philippines would be of great strategic benefit to Russia and would constitute a continual menace to Japan, to which, indeed, in case of a naval war in the Pacific, such a station of her own would be necessary to her effective defense.

The Atlanta Constitution. (Ga.)

So far as the attitude of the various European powers is concerned, the cause of Spain is already lost. Indeed, the question which European diplomats are now discussing is whether the possession of the Philippines will fall into the hands of Russia or Japan. As strategic points these islands are extremely valuable to either country, as they control the waters of the China Sea. For several years Japan has coveted these fertile islands, but she has never undertaken to wrest them from Spain. With

the present uprising, however, she has experienced a fresh desire to extend her empire in the neighborhood of the Philippines, and, if reports can be relied upon, she has already dispatched vessels to aid the insurgents. Except to render this military aid Japan has taken no steps as yet toward the establishment of her rule over the Philippines. In the event such a step is taken it is likely that Russia will interfere. Having already obtained a foothold in China within the last few months, Russia is also anxious to acquire possession of the Philippines. As between the two countries, Russia, of course, on account of her superior power, stands the better chance of capturing the prize. While Japan is a wide-awake and enterprising nation, she has not the strength to cope with Russia, and it would never do for her to antagonize that great power.

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

These events in Spain's Pacific colonies, important in themselves, become doubly so from their influence upon the struggle in Cuba, by calling away troops and ships that otherwise would be available for that island. Spain may lose both her colonies, although should she soon relinquish her hold on the Antilles she would have troops enough to retain it in the Philippines.

The Chattanooga Times. (Tenn.)

Under decent government, such as Great Britain maintains in India, the Philippines would speedily become one of the richest countries in the world.

Under the domination of Spain this large population is sunk in ignorance, barbarism, outright savagery. There are not above 5,000 pure Spaniards on the group, and they domineer over the natives and half-breeds, rob and murder them without stint or mercy. And the worst of it is that, during the three centuries Spain has controlled them, the condition of the Philippines has not, by any means, kept pace with the general progress of oriental countries. Where it is complete, Spanish rule is an unmitigated curse.

The Philadelphia Inquirer. (Pa.)

The revolution has undoubtedly given Japan the opportunity which she so long desired, and, although it is not likely that if it had occurred ten years ago she would have interfered, yet the prestige which she has since gained and the triumphs which she has achieved have stimulated her ambition and her boldness. When the news comes, as it may any day, of the capture of Manila by the rebels, Japan's opportunity will have come and she will avail herself of it.

CHINESE MACHINISTS.

Philadelphia Press. (Pa.)

AFTER years of unambitious toil in the laundry business the Mongolian in the United States has come to the conclusion that there are higher flights within his scope than washing collars or selling tea and preserved ginger. Since the visit of Viceroy Li Hung Chang the humble Chinaman on Race Street has taken on a new, though still modest, dignity, and within the rings of smoke curling from the bowl of his pipe he is beginning to see possibilities that were heretofore undreamed of. Chinatown is now filled with confidential predilections and joyous anticipation. If all goes well five young Chinamen will enter the Baldwin Locomotive Works

on Monday morning and begin a regular four years' course in applied mechanics, from which they will graduate as full-fledged machinists. The names of the boys are Lee Yuy, Toy Chee, Jung Kung, Lee Yok and Lee Low, and their ages range between seventeen and twenty-two years. On the completion of their instruction they will be enabled to return to China and assist in the construction of new locomotives. Baldwin's are building eight large locomotives for China. The boys all speak English fluently, but have not yet mastered the art of reading correctly. They will, therefore, take up their quarters at the new Chinese Mission House and devote their evenings to study.

ALEXANDER HERRMANN, THE MAGICIAN.



ALEXANDER HERRMANN.

DEVOTEES of amusement and science join in mourning the death of the magician Alexander Herrmann, which occurred suddenly from heart disease December 12 on the cars at Great Valley, N. Y. Born in Paris in 1844, he was a magician by inheritance as well as by training, his father, Samuel Herrmann, having been in his day one of the world's greatest magicians. Alexander Herrmann made his debut in America in 1861 in New York. After performing for seventy-five consecutive nights he went with his brother on a tour of the chief cities of Europe, and was honored with attentions such as few public entertainers can boast. In 1867 he dissolved partnership with his brother and having spent a couple of seasons exhibiting in the leading cities of America he again made a tour of the world, stopping in Siam, Hongkong, and Northern Russia. His performances aroused the superstitious fear of the natives everywhere, and in Moscow, when without the least apparent motion he made a canary bird vanish, the chief secretary of one of the agents of finance applied to have the wizard denounced as being in league with the powers of evil. In Germany, Austria, England, Italy—all along his

route, he roused a great sensation. Returning to America in 1874 he made a successful tour from Boston to San Francisco. His feat in levitation which he devised during the Centennial Exposition at Philadelphia in 1876, the trick which he introduced in 1882 of causing a bird in a cage to vanish before the audience, his great strength, the basket trick—all excited world-wide wonderment, but his most astonishing accomplishment was his latest trick, that of allowing himself to be shot at by a squad of Seventh Regiment men with guns previously loaded with ball cartridge by a committee.

THE JUDGES AND LAWYERS' CONVENTION.

A STEP toward the improvement of the legal profession in Pennsylvania was taken by the assembled judges and lawyers of Pennsylvania in Philadelphia on December 29. The convention was convoked by committees of the Pennsylvania Bar Association for the purpose of considering two questions: first, the establishment of uniform rules of court throughout the state, and second, the enforcement of a uniform system of admission to the bar. In regard to the first question a resolution was passed authorizing the appointment of a committee of nine on the advisability and practicability of such rules, the report on the same to be given in the next annual session of the State Bar Association. Touching the second question a resolution was passed providing for the submission of the proposed rules to the board of examiners of each county, "with the request that these boards consider and report suggestions to the bar association."

The Philadelphia Record. (Pa.)

That these legal reforms are highly desirable will be admitted by all who have any connection with the courts; that they are feasible, except perhaps as to minor matters of detail, will scarcely be disputed. Since, therefore, their initiation would be as much of a benefit to the bench as to the bar, there is reason to hope for their attainment as a result of the convention.

The Philadelphia Inquirer. (Pa.)

The convention of judges and lawyers of the state was on the whole as successful as it could be expected to be. The question, broadly stated, was whether the bench and bar should unite to elevate the profession, or whether local or personal interests, real or imaginary, should prevent the object of the convention. Some of the lawyers showed a disposition to criticise the judiciary, some of the judges gave expression to views that were hardly

politic, and there was an occasional outbreak of erratic individualism such as no convention is without; but Mr. Clement, of Sunbury, Mr. Walter George Smith, of Philadelphia, Judge Greer and Judge Ewing, of Fayette, in their remarks evidently reflected the thought of the large majority of the delegates. It will be seen from this [the resolutions passed] that the bench and bar are getting to work with a common purpose toward a common end. A uniform examination is likely to lead to uniform rules of practise. And improvement in the bar inevitably leads to the strengthening of the bench, and the plan of action agreed upon with so much unanimity seems in itself to answer every one of the few critics who for one reason or another were opposed to action. The movement now under way seems to be bound to lead to harmony, not discord, and to be equally bound, in the words of Judge Ewing, of Fayette, to substitute "Pennsylvania lawyer" for "Philadelphia lawyer."

EX-QUEEN LILIUOKALANI VISITS AMERICA.



EX-QUEEN LILIUOKALANI
OF HAWAII.

QUITE a flurry was occasioned in diplomatic circles at Washington, D. C., by the arrival in this country on December 11 of ex-Queen Liliuokalani of Hawaii, following, as it did, only a few days after the visit here of Mr. Henry Cooper, the Hawaiian minister of foreign affairs. The ex-queen landed at San Francisco, Cal. She was non-communicative as to her errand in America, but the Hawaiian consul at San Francisco was informed through his government that her destination avowedly was Boston, where she was going to visit relatives of her husband, the late John Dominis, and representatives of Hawaii were instructed to show her every courtesy during her sojourn in America. According to advices of December 15 a strong league opposing annexation to the United States is in progress of formation in the Hawaiian Islands to extend throughout the group with headquarters at Honolulu. It is now an open secret that the recent mission of Mr. Henry Cooper to the United States was in an official capacity to urge annexation, on the ground that the Japanese are usurping control of the islands. After his visit in Washington Mr. Cooper proceeded to Canton, where his secretary probably secured the interview with Major McKinley which his position forbade his doing in person.

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

As the first months of Mr. Cleveland's administration were signalized by an effort to overthrow the republic in Hawaii and to place Mrs. Dominis

on the throne, so its last months witness a visit of that lady to our shores. Her chief purpose is rumored to be a talk with the president. Two reports are afloat as to her object. One is that she

is to appeal to him, as one of the most distinguished of the royalists, to make a final effort to restore the crown in Hawaii. The other is that she has gone over to the annexationists, and, under the impression that her pension will be larger if annexation is brought about while her great and good friend is still in office, she is here to convert him to that policy. Whether either rumor is correct we cannot say; but of the two we should judge the latter to be the more probable, since royalty is as good as dead in the islands, and Liliuokalani must know it. But in either case, we think, hers is a hopeless and thankless quest. Annexation, when it comes, at no distant day, will not come because of Mr. Cleveland; and, in fact, he is fast approaching a condition of vacated power and patronage as marked as hers. He was entirely successful in depriving this unfortunate woman of the large pension she would have had under the treaty of four years ago, but he can do nothing to help her in getting even a smaller pension now.

The Times-Democrat. (New Orleans, La.)

Ex-Queen Liliuokalani, in her passage through New Orleans, being asked as to the probable destiny of her quondam realm, expressed the belief that it would be annexed to the United States. The ex-queen's belief, however, may have been stimulated by her hope of receiving a pension in the event of annexation; or it may be that her faculty of politi-

cal observation may not be sufficiently developed to found a reliable opinion on.

The Mail and Express. (New York, N. Y.)

The visit of Henry Cooper, Hawaiian minister of foreign affairs, to Canton yesterday is agreeably significant. We do not believe that Mr. Cooper has attempted more than a statement of his case—which is pardonable in view of his immediate return to Hawaii. Nor do we believe that Major McKinley would accept any suggestion at this time. Nevertheless we have confidence that annexation will be realized.

The Times. (Hartford, Conn.)

It will be greatly to Major McKinley's credit if he lets the various jingo adventurers understand at once that the schemes of foreign annexation will not be regarded with favor by his administration.

Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

Her coming to this country cannot disturb our relations with Hawaii, except on the supposition that she can induce our government to interfere with that of Hawaii in her behalf, and, as there is no evidence that she intends to ask for such interference, and no prospect of its being granted if she did, there is very little basis for a sensation in the fact of her coming here. Probably she is simply indulging a natural desire to travel, and it is not necessary to assume any other reason for her movements.

MR. MOODY AND HIS WORK.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

It is evident that Mr. Moody, who has just closed a series of revival meetings in this city, has as much power as ever over an audience. Indeed there are many who will say that he was never so effective as he is to-day. He is rarely gifted with what is called personal magnetism, for want of a better name. But that alone would not long hold hearers if he were not also a man of deep piety, downright earnestness, and, in most matters, abundant common sense. Though he does not possess the culture of the schools, he is one of the most forcible and effective public speakers in the country. When we add to these qualifications that he comes before any audience to-day with an international fame and with an almost unparalleled record of evangelistic work, it is not strange that thousands are anxious to hear him, and that he is listened to with rapt attention.

The great evangelist says that he is gratified at the successful results of the New York meetings. His intention was to strengthen the impulses and stimulate the zeal of Christian people, and he thinks he has done so. Yet there is reason to fear that even in this respect the success of the meetings

was not as great as it ought to have been. With possibly a few exceptions, the clergy who are regarded as the religious leaders of the churches in this city took no active part in cooperating with Mr. Moody. Nor, so far as the public knows, did any of the religious denominations give an official indorsement to his work. There was some talk about the Episcopal Church's joining in it through its Parochial Missions Society, but nothing seems to have come of it. What was the cause of this abstention we cannot undertake to say; but two reasons have been suggested. The clergy and the churches hesitate to commit themselves to a religious movement the head of which is an unordained man. And the sensationalism, blasphemy, and vulgarity of certain evangelists have prejudiced many conservative Christian people against all evangelistic work. While it is true that Mr. Moody is not that kind of an evangelist, he is made to suffer for the sins of some of his coworkers in the field.

It must also be admitted that Mr. Moody's own utterances have stood in the way of a larger recognition of his good work. There are clergymen in this city, the revered pastors of great churches,

who, in consecration and devotion to the teachings of Christ, are at least the equals of Mr. Moody, but who do not believe literally in the story of Jonah and the whale, and the sun standing still at the command of Joshua. They would be glad to cooperate with Mr. Moody; but how can they do so when he tells them that they are rejecters of Christ and Christianity.

In another statement the other day he ran counter to the belief of Christians that the world is growing better. Mr. Moody thinks it is growing

worse, thus taking his stand with the millenarians, some of whom seem to rejoice over the wickedness of the world because it indicates the speedy coming of Christ to reign on the earth. Of course the world is not growing worse, but better. To believe otherwise is to deny the regenerating power of Christianity. We do not for a moment imagine that Mr. Moody sees this. But it is a curious fact that the greatest evangelist of the age should agree with the horde of infidel pessimists who see no gleam of progress or hope in the history of the world.

SATAN BURNED IN EFFIGY.

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

THE devil was burned in effigy last night at Salvation Army headquarters, in West Fourteenth Street, in the presence of a large gathering of spectators. In front of the hall was a big placard with the following announcement:

"Jan. 6, 8 p. m.—The Devil—His Anatomy Dissected and Destroyed—Burned in Effigy. Awful, Realistic, Startling!"

A picture of Satan in red, with an immense cloven hoof and long tail, was painted on the bill board.

Previous to the cremation of his Satanic Majesty's effigy the band from Salvation Army headquarters paraded the streets. Four of the lassies, wearing scarlet caps, followed the band and carried what was intended to represent a coffin between them, two at the head and two at the foot. On the mock coffin was printed in big black letters the words, "The Devil to Burn."

Major Winchell and his wife officiated at the cremation. They made addresses describing the ruin Satan has worked among souls. Then Cadet Robinson, a young girl, sang a hymn entitled "He Can't Get Me No More." The refrain of this hymn was as follows:

He can't get me no more,
He can't get me no more;
He had me once, and he let me go,
And he can't get me no more.

The "he" in this case was the devil. Major Winchell said that he believed implicitly in the personality of the devil.

"Let us sing now 'Burn Him Again,'" he added. The audience sang with enthusiasm. The refrain of this song was:

Burn him again, burn him again,
The devil's a devil, so burn him again.

When the song was ended Major Winchell said: "We will now immediately proceed to cut off the devil's head."

The coffin had meanwhile been placed on the front platform, and three Salvation Army lassies produced an elaborately trimmed bonnet, with rib-

bons three yards long, and carried it to Major Winchell. The bonnet was intended to typify pride, and the major pinned it to the curtain which ran along the front of the platform.

"Let us now cut out the devil's tongue," said the major.

One of the girl cadets rummaged in the coffin for a moment and then produced a paper pattern cut in the shape of a tongue. It was about four feet long and one foot wide, and on it were printed the words "Gossip, scandal, lies, and blasphemies."

The next thing was the cutting out of Satan's vertebrae. This was illustrated by a picture of Col. Bob Ingersoll. At the bottom of the picture were the words "Doubt, destiny."

Major Winchell told the spectators what a bad man Colonel Ingersoll was and how his advice should be shunned.

"Cadet Kilrain will now sing us something," said the major.

Cadet Kilrain, who is a rather pretty girl with a good voice, sang the hymn, "Have Faith in God," and got the first encore of the night.

The tail of the devil, which consisted of a pack of cards, strung out one after another, and the devil's heart, four feet by two, made of paper with the word "Deceit" printed on one side, were next cut and displayed to the audience.

"Let us now cut out the devil's wings," said the major.

The devil's wings were represented by a picture of two pugilists who were delivering impossible upper cuts.

Then came the last act, namely, the burning of the effigy of Satan. Major Winchell had a lot of blue and red lights and some kind of an unearthly figure on the stage.

The hall was darkened and matches were applied to the lights, the effigy being suspended in mid-air. The women all screamed at the sight.

Then the band played a funeral march and the cremation came to a close. The audience had to pay ten cents apiece to witness the spectacle.

SUMMARY OF NEWS.

HOME.

December 6. Three hundred toll-gates in Kentucky are destroyed by turnpike raiders who confiscate \$4,000,000 worth of property.

December 7. The full text of the agreement for arbitration of the Venezuelan boundary dispute is made public by the State Department.—Secretary Olney's report on the foreign relations of the United States is published.—The chairmanship of the McKinley inaugural committee is given to Mr. C. J. Bell, of Washington, D. C.

December 8. The general pension appropriation bill (\$141,363,880) and three postal bills pass the House.—Postmaster-general Wilson and Controller Eckels publish their annual reports.—The International Association of Accident Underwriters convenes in Chicago, Ill.—The Anti-Saloon League is in session in Washington, D. C.

December 9. The House passes several private pension and public land bills.—Washington, D. C., is selected for the permanent national Republican headquarters.

December 10. Laws are enacted in the House to prevent dramatic piracy and to prohibit the sale of liquors in the capitol building.—Maria Barberi is acquitted in the second trial for the murder of her lover, Dominico Cataldo.

December 13. The Dawes Commission is reported to have reached an agreement with representatives of the Choctaws on the allotment plan.

December 14. President Cleveland appoints C. A. Prouty, of Vermont, to succeed W. G. Veazey as interstate commerce commissioner.

December 17. The Interstate Commerce Commission gives its report to the public.

December 21. Secretary of the Treasury Carlisle renders his annual report.

December 22. Both houses of Congress adjourn to January 5.

December 24. Boston street railways are tied up by a strike of the employees.

December 27. A train runs off a bridge on the Birmingham Mineral Road in Alabama, killing twenty-seven persons.

January 1. The annual New Year's reception takes place at the White House.

FOREIGN.

December 6. The dock men's strike in Hamburg, Germany, grows into a general attack on German commerce and German capital, the Social Democratic party siding with the strikers.

December 7. In Berlin five editors are found guilty of libeling the minister of foreign affairs and sentenced, and the chief of the political police is arrested on evidence of implication in the affair.

December 9. A Spanish cabinet council is held on the allusions to Spain and Cuba expressed in President Cleveland's message.

December 17. South England and Wales suffer much damage from an earthquake.

December 18. Peruvian Indians revolt.—Deputies in the Italian Chamber come to blows over voting an allowance to the Prince of Naples.

December 23. The French government decrees the abolition of slavery in Madagascar.

December 26. Consul-general Lee returns to his work in Havana, Cuba.

December 28. A landslide in County Kerry, Ireland, causes many deaths and much damage to property.—A landslide in Italy wipes out the village of Santa Anna di Pelago.

December 29. Gladstone passes his eighty-eighth birthday in Hawarden Castle.

December 30. The trial in Sofia, Bulgaria, of the alleged murderers of ex-Premier Stambuloff results in the sentence of each to three years' imprisonment.

January 1. In consequence of King Humbert of Italy's illness no New Year's receptions are held at the Quirinal.

January 2. One of the czar's innovations for the near future, it is reported, will be the establishment of a Supreme Court in Russia to relieve himself of the minor affairs of state.

January 5. Emperor William of Germany commands his officers to submit their differences to a council of honor before entering into duels.

NECROLOGY.

December 8. Ernest Engel, German statistician.

December 11. Mrs. Sarah B. Cooper, kindergarten.

December 14. George L. Catlin, author and ex-consul at Zurich, Switzerland.

December 18. Paul Auguste Arene, French *littérateur*.

December 27. General John Meredith Read, American diplomatist.

December 28. Antoine Théodore Joseph Thery, life member of the French Senate.

January 1. U. S. Rear-admiral Joseph S. Skerrett, retired.

C. L. S. C. OUTLINE AND PROGRAMS.

FOR FEBRUARY.

OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING.

First Week (ending February 4).

- "A Survey of Greek Civilization." Chapter I.
 "A Study of the Sky." Chapter IX. and Chapter IV. from page 69 to page 71.

IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN :

- "Masterpieces of French Painting."
 Sunday Reading for January 31.

Second Week (ending February 11).

- "A Survey of Greek Civilization." Chapter II.
 "A Study of the Sky." Chapter X. and Chapter IV. from page 71 to page 74.

IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN :

- "The French Army and Navy."
 "Louis XIV. and His Time."
 Sunday Reading for February 7.

Third Week (ending February 18).

- "A Survey of Greek Civilization." Chapter III. to page 87.
 "A Study of the Sky." Chapter XI. and Chapter IV. from page 74 to page 76.

IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN :

- "Social Life of Modern Greece."
 Sunday Reading for February 14.

Fourth Week (ending February 25).

- "A Survey of Greek Civilization." Chapter III. concluded.
 "A Study of the Sky." Chapter XII. and Chapter IV. concluded.

IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN :

- "The Commercial Geography of Europe."
 "The Goldsmith's Trade and its Relation to Wealth."
 Sunday Reading for February 21.

FOR MARCH.

First Week (ending March 4).

- "A Survey of Greek Civilization." Chapter IV.
 "A Study of the Sky." Chapters XIII. and XIV. and Chapter V. to page 81.

IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN :

- "Homeric Art."
 Sunday Reading for February 28.

SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLE WORK.

FIRST WEEK.

1. Essay—A history and description of the telescope.

2. A paper—The political history of ancient Greece.
3. Essay—The myths of Greece.
4. A Talk—Superstition in the nineteenth century.
5. General Conversation—The religion of the ancient Greeks.

SECOND WEEK.

1. Essay—The military systems of France and the United States.
2. A Paper—The Age of Louis XIV.
3. A Review—America during the reign of Louis XIV.
4. Essay—The language and literature of Greece.
5. Table Talk—The sin of tardiness.
6. A Study—The Swiss Republic.*

THIRD WEEK.

HOMER DAY—FEBRUARY 12.

In the *Odyssey*, we may liken Homer with justice to the setting sun, whose glory, indeed, still remains, though the excessive heat of his beams has abated.—*Longinus*.

1. A Talk—The story of the *Odyssey*.
2. A Paper—The *Iliad*.
3. Select Reading—"The Lotos-eaters," by Tennyson.
4. A Talk—The poet Homer.
5. Select Reading—"The Fifth Book of Homer's *Odyssey*," translated by Bryant.
6. A Study—Pope's translation of the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey*.
7. Select Reading—"Circe's Palace" in Hawthorne's "Tanglewood Tales."

FOURTH WEEK.

1. Essay—The sunless world.
2. Conversation—Personal observations of sun-spots and eclipses.
3. Reading—"The Constellations," by Bryant.
4. A Talk—The aurora borealis.
5. Essay—The tyrants of Greece.
6. General Discussion—The present Congress.*

FOR MARCH.

FIRST WEEK.

1. Select Reading—"The Conjunction of Jupiter and Venus," by Bryant.
2. A Talk—A trip to Mars.
3. A Paper—Constantinople.
4. Historical Sketch—The Persian Wars.
5. A Study—The Athenians and Spartans.

* See *Current History and Opinion*.

C. L. S. C. NOTES AND WORD STUDIES.

ON REQUIRED READING FOR FEBRUARY.

"A STUDY OF THE SKY."

P. 176. "Deal." An English town on the southeast coast of the North Sea, near which Julius Cæsar is supposed to have made his landing in 55 B.C. The pilots of Deal are renowned for their skill and boldness.—"Downs." A portion of the North Sea off the southeast coast of England, forming a roadstead which is protected by the Goodwin Sands.

P. 180. The "Bessemer converter" is a retort used in the Bessemer process of manufacturing steel, in which the molten iron is decarburized and converted into steel.

P. 186. "Schwabe" [shvā'be] (1789-1875). He was noted chiefly for his discovery of the periodicity of the sun-spots.

P. 198. "Standard candle." A special form of candle used as a standard in measuring the luminosity of an illuminating body. Such a candle is usually made of spermaceti and it is so constructed as to burn at the rate of about 120 grains per hour.

P. 201. "Pliny." A Roman naturalist living in the first century, A. D.

P. 215. "Tap-cinder." The slag from a puddling-furnace.

P. 217. "Krakatoa" [krā-kā-tō'ā]. A small island between Sumatra and Java. An ocean wave accompanying the eruption which occurred here in 1883 destroyed over 30,000 lives.

P. 221. "Koh-i-noor." The largest diamond of the British crown jewels. It was acquired by Queen Victoria in 1850.

P. 224. "Sign of the Lion." One of the twelve divisions of the zodiac, so called from the name of the constellation Leo which formerly was found in that sign.

"A SURVEY OF GREEK CIVILIZATION."

P. 13. "Lascaris" [lās'kā-rēs]. A descendant of the royal family of Constantinople who took refuge in Italy after the sack of that city by the Turks in 1453. He taught the Greek language in Italy and edited several Greek works.—"Renaissance" [re-na-sāns'; English pronunciation, re-nās'-sans]. From the French *renaître*, meaning to be born again; a revival; specifically the movement of transition in Europe characterized by a revival of classical art and letters. This development or transition was most marked in Italy, where it reached its height at the close of the fifteenth and in the first part of the sixteenth centuries.

P. 13. "Certosa" [cher-tō'sā]. One of the largest and finest of the Carthusian monasteries.

It was founded in 1396 and though the interior is architecturally imperfect the paintings and the church furniture give it a splendid appearance. It contains the tomb of Gian Galeazzo Visconti, an ambitious and perfidious duke of Milan.—"Borgognone" [bōr-gōn-yō'nā]. A famous Italian painter. The frescoes in a church at Milan and a "Madonna with Two Angels" in the Museum at Berlin are among his masterpieces.

P. 13. "Toreutic" [tō-roo'tik]. A term applied to chasing, carving, or embossing of hard substances, particularly of metal.

P. 14. The "Madeleine" [mä-de-lān'] or Church of St. Mary Magdalene was begun by Louis XV. in 1764 but was not completed until 1842. The temple, which is of stone, is 354 feet long, 141 feet wide, and 100 feet high, built on a basement about 23 feet high, and surrounded by massive Corinthian columns. The interior, which forms a large hall, lighted from above, is ornamented with painting and sculpture.

P. 15. "Thucydides" [thu-sid'i-dēz]. A Greek historian who died probably about 401 B.C.

P. 16. "Eratosthenes" [er-a-tos'the-nēz]. An astronomer, geographer, and grammarian living probably from 276 B.C. to 196 B.C. Scientific chronology and astronomical geography are said to have been founded by him.

P. 16. "Archilochus" [ar-kil'ō-kus]. A writer of Greek lyric poetry, who, it is thought, lived about 700 B.C.—"Simonides" [si-mon'i-dēz]. A Greek iambic poet living about 600 B.C.—"Gyges" [jī'jēz]. A king of Lydia who died about 680 B.C. According to Plato, Gyges, while performing the duties of the herdsman of Caudales, the king of Lydia, found in a gap made by an earthquake a large brazen horse within which was a corpse with a golden ring. He took the ring and one day accidentally discovered that by means of it he could make himself invisible at will. Using this miraculous power he destroyed the king and usurped his throne.

P. 19. "Septemtriones." The name applied by the Romans to the seven bright stars in Ursa Major.

P. 22. "Mycenæ" [mī-sē'nē]. An ancient city of Greece a few miles from Corinth.—"Tiryns" [tī'rinz]. A city of ancient Greece located near the coast southeast of Argos.

P. 22. "Orchomenus" [or-kom'e-nus]. A city of ancient Greece, about fifty-five miles northwest of Athens.

"Santorin" [sān-tō-rēn'].—"Levant." A term

generally applied to that portion of the Mediterranean Sea which touches the shores of Asia Minor and Syria, though sometimes it is considered as extending east from Italy as far as the Euphrates and as including the valley of the Nile.

P. 23. "Terramare" [ter-a-mă're]. From the Italian *terra amara*, meaning bitter earth; earth containing a large quantity of organic or mineral matter; deposits of earth which contain prehistoric remains, as pottery, bones, etc.—"Reggio di Emilia" [red'jō dē ā-mē'lē-ā].—"Collegio Romano." An educational institution established by Gregory XIII. in 1582 and managed by the Jesuits. Beside the Kircherian museum the college has a fine library and the Roman observatory is also under the direction of this institution.

P. 23. "Priam." According to the legends of Greece, the king of Troy and the father of Hector and Paris. The latter by his abduction of Helen, the wife of Menelaus, king of Sparta, caused the Trojan War. He was fatally wounded by a poisoned arrow at the siege of Troy. Hector was one of the principal warriors on the Trojan side. He was slain by Achilles, to whose chariot Hector's body was afterward attached and dragged three times round the walls of the city of Troy.—"Æneas" was a Trojan prince who, according to Homer, took an active part in the war, fighting against the Greeks. After the fall of Troy he reigned in the Troad after the house of Priam became extinct.

P. 24. "Morea" [mo-rē'ā]. The peninsula which forms the southern part of the kingdom of Greece, formerly called the Peloponnesus.

P. 26. "Weltschmerz." A German word signifying regret, or sorrow for the world.

P. 26. "Pergamum." The name applied in the Iliad to the citadel of Troy.

P. 30. "Amyclæ" [a-mī'klē].

P. 32. "Horus." According to the mythological tales of Egypt a solar deity, the son of Asiris.

P. 32. "Amenophis II." An Egyptian king who reigned about 1566 B. C.—"Thothmes III." lived about 1600 B. C. and is sometimes called "the Alexander of ancient Egyptian history."

P. 32. "Danaus" [dan'ā-us]. The founder of Argos, according to the Greek legends.

P. 32. "Cadmus." In legendary history the founder of Thebes in Bœotia. To him is ascribed the honor of introducing the letters of the Greek alphabet.

P. 39. "Pluto." In the mythical legends of Rome, the god of the lower world. "He is represented as an elderly man with a dignified but severe aspect and often as holding in his hand a two-pronged fork."

P. 41. "Epos." An epic poem.

P. 42. "Pelagian" [pe-las'ji-an]. Pertaining to the Pelasgi, an ancient race inhabiting the islands

and coasts of the Mediterranean and Ægean Seas.—"Thracian" Belonging to Thrace, a region of southeastern Europe between the lower course of the Danube and the shore of the Ægean Sea. The "Macedonians" occupied the territory west of Thrace and east of Illyria.

P. 45. The "Æolic dialect" is one of the three great dialects which formed ancient Greek. The others were the Doric and Ionic.

P. 46. "Delphi." A town of ancient Greece about six miles from the Gulf of Corinth, and the seat of the oracle of Pythian Apollo. Those who sought the aid of the oracle brought many gifts which made the Delphic sanctuary extremely rich in works of art and precious metals.

P. 47. "Olympus." A mountain on the boundary between Thessaly and Macedonia, which according to Greek mythology was the home of Jupiter and the chief celestial deities.

P. 48. "Celtic race," etc. This race who have made of commerce a poetry.

P. 48. "Penelope" [pē-nēl'ō-pē]. The wife of Ulysses, whom Greek legend has made a model of domestic virtues. While Ulysses was at the siege of Troy Penelope was surrounded by many suitors, to whom she declined to give her decision until a shroud which she was weaving for her aged father-in-law, Laërtes, was completed. But she postponed the evil day by unraveling each night all that she had done during the day; but Ulysses opportunely arrived after twenty years' absence and killed all the suitors.—"Antinous." One of Penelope's suitors.—"Eurybates." Herald of Ulysses.

P. 50. "Lotos-eaters." According to the Odyssey, a people who ate the fruit of the lotus, which made those of the followers of Ulysses who ate it forget their friends.

P. 50. "Damper." Unleavened bread made of flour and water and usually baked on a stone.

P. 51. "Arete" [a-rē'tē]. The wife of Alcinous, king of the Phæacians, mentioned in the Odyssey as "a noble and active superintendent of the household of her husband."

P. 52. "Mentor." Pallas in disguise, who guided Telemachus [te-lem'a-kus] to the court of Mentor, when he went in search of his father.—"Nestor." A legendary Grecian hero who when an old man took part in the siege of Troy and to whom Telemachus first went to learn news of his father. He is known as the oldest counselor of the Greeks before Troy.

P. 53. When Ulysses entered the house of King Alcinous he hastened to Queen Arete and prayed her to furnish him means to reach his home, then withdrew from her and sat on the hearthstone amid the ashes until Alcinous bade him arise and take a chair.—The "Molossians" were members of an ancient tribe living in Epirus, in northern Greece.

P. 53. "Miltiades." An Athenian general at the battle of Marathon in 490 B. C.

P. 54. "Nausicaa" [na-sik'ā-ā]. The daughter of Alcinoüs.

P. 55. "Clytemnestra" [klit-em-nes'tra]. The wife of Agamemnon.

P. 55. "Æschylus" [es'ki-lus]. A Greek tragic poet. He died in 456 B. C.

P. 55. "Sophocles." A Greek tragic poet contemporaneous with Æschylus.—"Electra" was the daughter of Clytemnestra and the events of her life were dramatized by Sophocles in a work called "Electra."

P. 56. "Demodocus" [de-mod'o-kus]. The bard who entertains the guests at the court of Alcinoüs while Ulysses is there.

P. 58. "Irus." The giant beggar employed as a messenger by the suitors of Penelope. They threatened to send him to King Echetus, who would cut off his nose and ears and cast his vitals to the dogs.

P. 60. "Helots." The serfs of Sparta owned by the state and bound out to landholders, to whom the Helots were obliged to pay a certain fixed per cent of the product of the soil which they cultivated.

P. 71. "Psammetichus" [sa-met'i-kus].

P. 72. "Pax Romana." Roman peace.

P. 72. "Alcæus" [al-sē'us]. A lyric poet who was born about 611 B. C.

P. 73. "Ecbatana" [ek-bat'a-na]. The capital

of Media, captured by Cyrus in 550 B. C. and used by the Persian kings as a summer residence.

P. 74. "Phaselis" [fa-sē'lis].—"The oasis of Jupiter Ammon," now called Siwah, is in northwestern Egypt about 160 miles from the coast. The temple of Jupiter Ammon was situated here.—"Pindar." A Greek lyric poet born about 522 B. C.

P. 74. "Samnites." A warlike people of Sabine origin who dwelt in Samnium, an ancient district in central Italy.

P. 77. "Return of the Heracleidæ" [her-a-klī'dē]. The invasion of the Peloponnesus by the Heracleidæ and the Dorians was commonly called the return of the Heracleidæ.

P. 78. "Taygetus" [tā-ij'e-tus]. The highest mountain range of the Peloponnesus.

P. 81. "Magna Græcia." A name given to that portion of southern Italy which was colonized by the Greeks.

P. 88. "Droits de seigneur." Lordly rights.

P. 88. "Stesichorus" [ste-sik'ō-rus].—"Hipponax" [hi-pō'naks].

P. 93. "Threnoi." The Greek word for dirges.

P. 95. "Corinna." A lyric poet.—"Epaminondas." A general and statesman of Thebes.—"Pelopidas." A general and an intimate friend of Epaminondas.

P. 101. "Dionysus" was the god of wine, and the feast of Dionysus was celebrated twice during the spring.

REQUIRED READING IN "THE CHAUTAUQUAN."

"MASTERPIECES OF FRENCH PAINTING."

1. "David" [dā-vēd'] (1748-1825). An historical painter and the founder of the French Classical School. He was made court painter by Napoleon Bonaparte.

2. "Guérin" [gā-ran'] (1774-1833). An historical painter.—"Regnault" [rē-nō'] (1754-1829). An historical painter.—"Lethière" [leh-te-ai'r'] (1760-1832). A landscape and historical painter.

3. "Manet" [mä nā'] (1833-1883). The founder of the Impressionist School of painting.—"Monet" [mō-nā']. A landscape painter and one of the impressionists.

4. "Ingres" [änggr]. A celebrated historical painter. He died in 1867.

5. "La Baigneuse." The Bather.—"La Source." The Spring.

6. Delaroche [de-lā-rosh']. A portrait and historical painter.

7. "Palais des Beaux-Arts." Palace of fine arts.

8. "Ictinus" [ik-ti'-nus]. A Greek architect of the fifth century B. C.—"Apelles" [a-pe'l'ēz]. A Greek painter who lived in the time of Philip and Alexander.—"Phidias" [fid'i-as]. A Greek sculptor born about 500 B. C.

9. "Vernet" [ver-nā'].

10. "Flandrin" [flon-dran'].

11. "Decamps" [de-kox'].

12. "Michallon" [me-shā-lon'].—"Bertin" [ber-tan'].

13. "Angelus du Soir." Angelus at Evening.

14. "Meissonier" [ma-so-nyā'].

15. "Duran" [dü-ron'].—"Cabanel" [kā-bā-nel'].—"Bonnat" [bo-nā'].—"Cazin" [ka-zan'].—"Dagnan-Bouveret" [dän-yon' boov-rā'].

16. "Raffaelli" [räf-fā-cl'lee].

"THE FRENCH ARMY AND NAVY."

1. "Louvois" [loo-vwā'].

2. "Martinet" [mār-tē-nā'].

3. "Écoles du Génie." Engineers' schools.

4. "Hydrographer." One skilled in the science of measuring or surveying bodies of water with particular reference to their value for navigation and commercial purposes.

"LOUIS XIV. AND HIS TIME."

1. "Elector palatine." The title of the ruler of the electoral palatinate in Germany.

2. The "Palatinate" was a former German state including the Upper Palatinate, now a part of Bavaria, and the Lower or Rhine Palatinate, afterward divided

chiefly among Bavaria, Baden, Hesse, and Prussia. The Rhine Palatinate was ravaged by the French in the latter part of the seventeenth century and in 1801 it was divided, all west of the Rhine being ceded to France, but by the treaties of 1814-15 it was restored to Germany.

“SOCIAL LIFE IN MODERN GREECE.”

1. “Areopagus” [ā-rē-op’a-gus]. A rocky hill

in ancient Athens separated from the Acropolis by a low depression of ground. The court which held its sittings here was not merely a criminal tribunal but its jurisdiction extended over everything which concerned the public welfare. The number composing the court is uncertain; the members served for life and they were men of unspotted character.

2. “*Ex parte.*” A Latin phrase meaning on one side only.

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS.

ON THE C. L. S. C. TEXT-BOOKS.

“A STUDY OF THE SKY.”

1. Q. What is the generally admitted ideal site for an observatory? A. An elevated plateau.
2. Q. Where in the observatory described is the meridian circle placed? A. In the east wing.
3. Q. In what portion of the building is the telescope? A. In the dome-room.
4. Q. What instrument is used for determining the right ascension and declinations of fundamental stars? A. The meridian circle.
5. Q. What instrument is considered an indispensable part of the equipment of an observatory? A. A chronograph.
6. Q. For what is the chronograph used? A. For noting time.
7. Q. When is the micrometer used? A. Whenever small distances are to be measured accurately.
8. Q. What is a spectroscope? A. An instrument in which light is dispersed and by which it is studied.
9. Q. For what does the astronomer use the spectroscope? A. To determine the composition of the planets.
10. Q. What is the distance of the sun from the earth? A. Nearly 93,000,000 miles.
11. Q. When is the earth nearest to the sun? A. At the beginning of the year.
12. Q. How do the earth and sun compare in size? A. The sun is 1,300,000 times as large as the earth.
13. Q. What is the umbra of a sun-spot? A. The dark portion of the spot.
14. Q. What is one of the most remarkable facts about a sun-spot? A. Its periodicity.
15. Q. What is the photosphere? A. A sheet of luminous clouds floating in an intensely heated gas forming the light-giving surface of the sun?
16. Q. In what condition is the interior of the sun supposed to be? A. Mainly gaseous.
17. Q. Why is the umbra of a spot so dark? A. It is depressed below the general level and overlaid by a greater depth of cooler vapors than the adjacent regions.
18. Q. What are *faculae*? A. Elevations in the photosphere.
19. Q. What name is given to the shallow layer covering the photosphere? A. Chromosphere.
20. Q. Beyond the chromosphere what is found? A. The corona.
21. Q. What is the generally accepted theory by which astronomers tried to solve the problem of the maintenance of the sun's heat? A. The contraction theory.
22. Q. How does the moon affect the ocean? A. It raises tides in the ocean.
23. Q. How often does the moon rotate on its axis? A. Once during one revolution about the earth.
24. Q. What is the shape of the moon's orbit? A. It is an ellipse.
25. Q. How much of the moon's face do we see? A. Fifty-nine per cent.
26. Q. What is the diameter of the moon and what is its distance from the earth? A. 2,163 miles; 238,840 miles.
27. Q. From what do the moon's apparent changes of form result? A. From its revolution around the earth.
28. Q. How long a time is required for the moon to accomplish one revolution? A. $27\frac{1}{3}$ days.
29. Q. What does an opera-glass show in regard to the light and dark portions on the lunar surface? A. That the bright portions are covered with rugged formations while the dark portions are smooth.
30. Q. What are the chief classes of lunar formations? A. Craters, mountain ranges, isolated peaks, plains, rays, clefts, and rills.
31. Q. By what name is one of the finest of the lunar craters called? A. Copernicus.
32. Q. What is the diameter of some of the largest craters? A. Over 100 miles.
33. Q. What does observation reveal in regard to the atmosphere about the moon? A. That there is no atmosphere of appreciable density.
34. Q. When do eclipses of the moon occur?

A. When it plunges into the shadow of the earth.

35. Q. Toward what direction does the moon move? A. Toward the east.

36. Q. During a solar eclipse for how long a time is the sun usually entirely covered? A. Only two or three minutes.

—
"A SURVEY OF GREEK CIVILIZATION."

1. Q. Of what is the early Renaissance of Italy the outgrowth? A. Of the Greek tastes and Greek learning brought from Constantinople by Lascaris and his followers.

2. Q. At one time what did the ancients and moderns agree to accept as the beginning of Greek history? A. Homer.

3. Q. To what time was it maintained that our knowledge of Greek history and manners extended? A. To about 1000 B. C.

4. Q. What do modern critics assert in regard to the authorship of the Iliad and Odyssey? A. They are the work of a school or succession of bards.

5. Q. What proof is there of the truth of this assertion? A. The frequent inconsistencies, the obvious sutures, and the traces of older and shorter lays worked into a plot.

6. Q. By what do we know that the Hellenic peninsula was inhabited before civilization? A. By the flint remains and rude hand-made pottery.

7. Q. What do the discoveries at Troy and Mycenæ reveal to us? A. That the society of the Iliad and the Odyssey was not a primitive society, but the waning phase of an older civilization.

8. Q. From the evidence produced by Schliemann's discoveries what assumption is made in regard to civilization about the Ægean Sea? A. It is very old, much older than any one suspected thirty years ago.

9. Q. How many stages of civilization are traceable at Mycenæ? A. Two.

10. Q. From what do we obtain information about the earliest civilized occupants of the Hellenic soil? A. From the material remains of their architecture and art.

11. Q. By what means do we learn about the religion of the early Greeks? A. By the idols found among their household stuff and their treatment of the dead.

12. Q. What was the early theory in regard to Greek history? A. That it was composed of distinct stages separated by almost impenetrable darkness.

13. Q. What is the modern theory in regard to Greek history? A. That it shows a more natural and a more rational development.

14. Q. Of what value are the Homeric poems as genuine evidences of civilization? A. The oldest poems reflect the age in which they were written

and give a truer view of the earliest Greek society than any dry chronicle.

15. Q. What in the later poems lessens their value as evidence? A. certain amount of antiquarianism—a conscious clothing of the heroes in antique dress and manners.

16. Q. In what is this most manifest? A. In the dialect.

17. Q. To what kind of society does Homer introduce the reader? A. To a very exclusive caste society.

18. Q. Upon what as indicative of civilization did the Greeks and Romans lay great stress? A. On the habits of the table.

19. Q. What took the place of intellectual conversation at the Homeric banquets? A. The singing of some bard.

20. Q. How was the current news of the day circulated? A. By wandering traders and beggars.

21. Q. What were the distinguishing characteristics of Homeric politeness? A. Good taste and tact.

22. Q. How were the ladies of the nobility treated? A. With courtesy, and even too great leniency, and they occupied a very important position in aristocratic society.

23. Q. According to Hesiod how did the nobility regard the lower class? A. With supreme contempt and they openly proclaimed the law of might.

24. Q. What common characteristic belonged to both the early and later Greeks? A. Greed of wealth.

25. Q. Of what nature is Hesiod's picture of life? A. Gloomy.

26. Q. According to tradition and internal evidence what conclusion may be drawn in regard to the works of Homer and Hesiod? A. Their poems if not strictly contemporaneous are proximate enough in date to be considered *socially* pictures of the same times differing in the attitude of the poets.

27. Q. What is the greatest gain in the Homeric society over that revealed by the old Mycænæan ruins and the bee-hive tombs? A. The substitution of home or native princes for foreigners.

28. Q. With what was the home development accompanied? A. With a decay in commerce and a decline of luxury.

29. Q. By what way was the high intelligence of the people manifested? A. By the adoption of foreign handicrafts, the production of new work on independent lines, and the extraordinary excellence of their literature.

30. Q. What has been found to be the origin of 776 B. C. as the precise date when the historical records began in Greece? A. It was the deliberate concoction of Iliippias of Elis.

31. Q. What proof is there that this date may be incorrect? A. No writing on stone has been

found which would lead the student to believe that the Greeks had records in that century.

32. Q. What do we know concerning Greece about 700 B. C? A. That it shows a considerable progress, or at least change, from the condition in which the Homeric bards knew or imagined it.

33. Q. What historical events brought about this change? A. The Dorian invasion and the rise of the Lydian Monarchy.

34. Q. What was the most surprising feature of the spread of Greek civilization and enterprise? A. The preservation of Greek national individuality.

35. Q. What would the history of ancient Greece

be if written? A. It would be the history of a great number of independent states, each with its own interests, quarrels, legislations, literature, traditions.

36. Q. In almost every Greek state what was the prevailing theory in regard to individual rights? A. That the individual had no rights against the state.

37. Q. In what respects were the Athenians superior to the Egyptians? A. In politics and letters.

38. Q. Of what class of people was Pindar the poet? A. Of the aristocracy.

39. Q. With what class of people is Solon to be classed? A. The moderate reformer of to-day.

THE QUESTION TABLE.

ANSWERS IN NEXT NUMBER.

FRENCH LITERATURE AND ART.—V.

1. What style of writing replaced the drama in the eighteenth century?

2. What three books are associated with the name of Montesquieu? Which is considered his masterpiece?

3. What was Victor Hugo's first novel?

4. When and where is the scene laid?

5. During his early years does the tendency of his talent point more toward poetry or toward fiction?

6. What merited distinction was granted him in his sixteenth year?

7. What art is called "frozen music"?

8. Who was the actual founder of the French School of music and the originator of the overture?

9. What country stands first in musical composition? Second? Third?

10. Who has been called the Michael Angelo of France?

FRENCH HISTORY.—V.

1. What was the most prosperous period of French commerce in the eighteenth century?

2. What remark was made by Louis XV. when he perceived the financial condition of his kingdom?

3. What famous sentence was uttered by Louis XV. and Madame de Pompadour?

4. What had been the work of royalty in modern society up to the close of the reign of Louis XV.?

5. In what condition did the overthrow of feudalism leave the land?

6. At the close of the reign of Louis XV. what ministers constituted the administrative organization?

7. By what means was money raised at this time?

8. What bodies pronounced sovereign judgment in civil and criminal affairs?

9. What was the principal tribunal of justice of the French Monarchy?

10. Over how much of France did this body have jurisdiction?

ASTRONOMY.—V.

1. What is estimated to be the weight of the sun as compared with that of the earth?

2. Which, according to estimates, weighs more, a cubic foot of the earth or a cubic foot of the sun?

3. Is the penumbra of a sun-spot darker toward the exterior edge or toward the interior?

4. What part of the sun is particularly noted for large and enduring spots?

5. By whom was it discovered that sun-spots are cavities or depressions?

6. What law in regard to the latitude of sun-spots has been discovered?

7. What is the position of the sun's axis with regard to the ecliptic?

8. Of what nature are the motions of sun-spots?

9. By what noted astronomer was the first attempt made to establish a relation between the variation of sun-spots and terrestrial meteorology?

10. When observed through a telescope armed with the ordinary astronomical eyepiece in what direction do the spots seem to move across the sun?

CURRENT EVENTS.—V.

1. When was the monarchical government of Hawaii overthrown?

2. By what was the revolution resulting in the queen's deposition precipitated?

3. Who was made president of the provisional government?

4. How many bodies in the legislative assembly?

5. Where are the Philippine Islands and what is the capital?

6. To whom do the islands belong and what titles have the ruling officers?

7. In the Swiss Republic in what two bodies is the legislative function of the government vested?

8. Which of these corresponds to the United States House of Representatives?

9. What are the qualifications necessary to become a member of this body?

10. What qualifications are necessary to be electors in Switzerland?

ANSWERS TO QUESTIONS IN "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FOR JANUARY.

FRENCH LITERATURE AND ART.—IV.

1. For the priesthood. Corneille. 2. "Esther" and "Atalie." The tender Racine. 3. Le Sage. 4. The eighteenth century. There is no department of letters in which he did not hold a prominent place, while in most he stood by common consent at the head. 5. He spent three years in Berlin and Potsdam with Frederick the Great, but was then dismissed in disgrace and arrested on the charge of taking some of the king's poetry. 6. "Irene." It was received with great applause, but the praise was more for the author than for the piece itself. 7. Gothic. 8. Pointed type of architecture. 9. Political dissensions and civil wars. 10. Jean Fouquet.

FRENCH HISTORY.—IV.

1. Napoleon at the battle of Lodi. 2. The Prince of Peace because in 1795 he secured peace with France. 3. The alliance of all the branches of the house of Bourbon established in France, Spain, the two Sicilies, in Parma and Piacenza, by which France secured the support of the Spanish Navy; the Duke of Choiseul. 4. The "battle of the

three emperors" because of the presence of the emperors of Austria, Russia, and France. 5. They appointed commissioners to decide the question but they could not agree. 6. Twenty-five. 7. For the ruin of the king of Prussia. 8. Goethe. 9. That it opened a new era in the history of the world. 10. By Malesherbes, minister under Louis XVI.

ASTRONOMY.—IV.

1. Lake Geneva, Wisconsin, about 75 miles north of Chicago; John Johnston, Jr., of Chicago. 2. The University of Chicago. 3. Mr. C. T. Yerkes, of Chicago. 4. 15 inches in diameter, 13 feet long, and weighs $3\frac{1}{2}$ tons. 5. Length, exclusive of the eye end, $62\frac{1}{2}$ feet; weight of the entire tube 6 tons. 6. On Mount Hamilton, California, at an elevation of about 4,250 feet above the sea level. 7. A wealthy Californian, James Lick; \$750,000. 8. The University of California. 9. June 1, 1888. 10. Thirty-six inches.

CURRENT EVENTS.—IV.

1. On the island of Key West, about 60 miles southwest of Cape Sable. 2. Fort Taylor. 3. It is the key to the best entrance to the Gulf of Mexico. 4. In the Gulf of Mexico, about 120 miles southwest of Cape Sable; Fort Jefferson. 5. As a penal station for Confederate prisoners. 6. Hilary A. Herbert. 7. In 1798 by act of Congress. 8. The act of Congress passed in 1775 authorizing the equipment of two cruisers. 9. One for every member or delegate of the House of Representatives, one for the District of Columbia, and ten at large. 10. In 1845 through the influence of George Bancroft, secretary of the navy. 11. What may be arbitrated, the constitution of the court, the vote necessary to a decision, and whether the decision be binding or only a basis of negotiation.

THE C. L. S. C. CLASSES.

1882-1900.

CLASS OF 1897.—"THE ROMANS."

"*Veni, Vidi, Vici.*"

OFFICERS.

President—Judge C. H. Noyes, Warren, Pa.

Vice Presidents—Rev. W. P. Varner, Bolivar, Pa.; Mrs. A. E. Barber, Bethel, Conn.; Miss Jessie Scott, Miss.; Mrs. G. B. Driscoll, Sidney, Ohio; Prof. Wm. E. Waters, Wells College, Aurora, N. Y.; A. A. Stagg, Chicago, Ill.; Mrs. Carrie V. Shaw-Rice, Tacoma, Wash.; Rev. James Ellsworth Coombs, Victoria, B. C.; Miss Emily Green, South Wales, N. Y.

Secretary—Miss Eva M. Martin, Chautauqua, N. Y.

Treasurer and Trustee—Shirley P. Austin, Pittsburg, Pa.

CLASS EMBLEM.—IV.

MANY who were originally members of the Class of '96 but found it inconvenient to graduate last year are having their membership transferred to '97 and will pass the gates with the Roman host.

THE coming summer will doubtless be a good season for Assemblies. Several new ones are being projected and this idea of combining intellectual profit with the annual vacation is rapidly growing. Every member of the Class of '97 will do well to plan to attend the Recognition Day services at some Assembly. It will help to increase the interest in this the great day of the session and make a very

pleasant and memorable event in the lives of those who have completed the course.

SOME enthusiastic circle work is being done in Haverhill, Mass. A large number will graduate there next June. Circles that graduate a large proportion of their membership this year should lay careful plans to secure the continuation of the work in the community the coming year. The best friends of the Chautauqua work are its graduates and upon them largely rests its future growth.

CLASS OF 1898.—"THE LANIERS."

"The humblest life that lives may be divine."

OFFICERS.

President—Dr. W. G. Anderson, New Haven, Conn.

Vice Presidents—Mrs. Frances R. Ford, Troy, N. Y.; Mrs. W. V. Hazeltine, Jamestown, N. Y.; Mrs. W. T. Gardner, S. H. Clark, Chicago, Ill.; Dr. J. M. Buckley, New York, N. Y.

Secretary and Treasurer—Mrs. S. H. Anderson, Cleveland, Ohio.

CLASS FLOWER—VIOLET.

A CIRCLE largely composed of the Class of '98 reports from Ontario. The secretary writes: "Our interest increases as we pursue the work this year. The C. L. S. C. prevents stagnation and the necessity we feel laid upon us to study increases our ability to do the work and the desire to do it well. I cannot tell the benefit it has been to me personally and the pleasure I have derived from it."

CLASS OF 1899.—"THE PATRIOTS."

"Fidelity, Fraternity."

OFFICERS.

President—John C. Martin, New York, N. Y.

Vice Presidents—The Rev. Cyrus B. Hatch, McKeesport, Pa.; Charles Barnard, New York, N. Y.; Frank G. Carpenter, Washington, D. C.; John Brown, Chicago, Ill.; Charles A. Carlisle, South Bend, Ind.; Edward Marsden, Alaska; William Ashton, Uxbridge, Eng.; Miss Alice P. Haworth, Osaka, Japan; Miss Frances O. Wilson, Tien-Tsin, China; Mrs. Katharine L. Stevenson, Chicago, Ill.

Secretary—Miss Isabella F. Smart, Brielle, N. J.

Treasurer and Building Trustee—John C. Whiteford, Mexico, N. Y.

CLASS EMBLEMS—THE FLAG AND THE FERN LEAF.

CLASS COLOR—BLUE.

PATHETIC and beautiful is the following from a mother, a member of this class in California. She writes: "My daughter is entirely blind and depends upon me to read this course to her. I am sixty-five years old but expect to study always." Fortunate are both in such fellowship. Visions to the blind and rejuvenation to old age—thus the quiet ministry of the C. L. S. C. is felt in many homes.

A LADY who is a solitary reader in the Class of '99 would be glad to exchange notes upon the readings with some other lady who has not the benefit of a local circle. A correspondence circle might be an encouragement to many a solitary reader.

CLASS OF 1900.—"THE NINETEENTH CENTURY CLASS."

"Faith in the God of truth; hope for the unfolding centuries; charity toward all endeavor."

OFFICERS.

President—Rev. Dr. Nathaniel I. Rubinkam, Chicago, Ill.

Vice Presidents—J. F. Hunt, Chautauqua, N. Y.; Morris A. Green, Pittsburg, Pa.

Secretary—Miss Mabel Campbell, Cohoes, N. Y.

Trustee—Rev. Dr. Nathaniel I. Rubinkam, Chicago, Ill.

CLASS EMBLEM—EVERGREEN.

A LARGE circle in Pennsylvania composed entirely of the new class reports as follows concerning "French Traits": "Our circle is each week entering into a better appreciation of that book especially. The frequent occurrence of French proper names and phrases gave us the idea of making a special point of French pronunciation, thinking that this would be of great value to all. Consequently we have been giving a word drill on the blackboard, and have prepared a chart containing a brief guide to the pronunciation of French words, and duplicates of this chart are now given to each member of the circle." The amount of good to be obtained from any book worth a careful reading largely depends upon the amount of work one is willing to put upon it.

GRADUATE CLASSES.

A MEMBER of the Class of '90, who has read forty-two books in the Vesper Reading Course since graduation, writes: "In pursuing these studies in the Home Circle it has been very pleasant and profitable to myself and family, and though I have passed my three score and ten years yet I intend to continue on as long as life and health will permit."

A MEMBER of the Class of '94 sends in memoranda for the last year and says: "The Chautauqua work means to me more than I can express. I have kept up the work in some line ever since I started and hope to do so every year of my life." Those who are deriving the most gratifying results from the regular course feel it to be an incentive to further work. Graduates look back four years but to good advantage can look ahead sixty years, for there are enough special courses to cover such a period.

THE following is an account of how a sailor's life was influenced by the Chautauqua work: "How did Chautauqua come into my life? It was from a desire that had long been in my mind for a better education than had been allotted me in younger years. Spending a year at home some friends who were forming a Chautauqua circle asked me to join them, and feeling that it must be just what I needed I joined the circle and read my first four years' course—years that were to me a beginning of a new life, opening and broadening it into a fuller and

brighter one, as Chautauqua must to all who enter her golden gates. Since then I have continued to read, as each new Chautauqua year came in. It has not been an easy task for me, somewhat advanced in years. Many times I have been late in beginning my readings, because I am far out on the sea, and often in a country that is far away from the United States. Reading at sea is not always easy. It is only in fine weather that one can read with profit and there are many days when the cares of a sailor are so heavy that it leaves little time to read. I do the most of my reading in the

early morning. It is the custom on shipboard to serve coffee at 5 a. m. At that time I have my cup of hot coffee and do the reading for that day, sometimes making up lost time. I find that I can do better work at that time than later in the day. Sometimes, too, I read in the afternoon. One who never has been for days and months at sea cannot fully understand how monotonous time will become. I hope that from this rambling description you may be able to glean something of interest to other readers who are striving to keep up with the times."

LOCAL CIRCLES.

C. L. S. C. MOTTOES.

"We Study the Word and the Works of God."

"Let us Keep our Heavenly Father in the Midst."

"Never be Discouraged."

C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS.

OPENING DAY—October 1.

BRYANT DAY—November, second Sunday.

MILTON DAY—December 9.

COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.

LANIER DAY—February 3.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.

LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.

SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.

ADDISON DAY—May 1.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.

INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Saturday after first Tuesday.

ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first Tuesday.

SPECIAL MEMORIAL DAYS FOR 1896-97.

CHARLEMAGNE DAY—October 30.

"SAINT LOUIS" DAY—November 30.

JOAN OF ARC DAY—December 4.

RICHIEU DAY—January 4.

HOMER DAY—February 12.

SOCRATES DAY—March 5.

EPAMINONDAS DAY—April 24.

PHIDIAS DAY—May 24.

NEW CIRCLES.

VERMONT.—The character of loyalty and perseverance attributed to all true Chautauquans is confirmed by the report from Newport where two '99's, a pastor and his wife, have organized and firmly established an energetic Chautauqua club.

NEW YORK.—Temple Circle of New York reports fifty-six members, and concerning the encouraging work and prospects the secretary writes: "We have a Chautauqua circle well organized and doing good work, holding a meeting every week. The course is certainly very helpful and our young people take a great deal of interest in the work. One of the pastors gives a lecture each week and the members present papers and ask questions."—A circle of earnest workers is reading in Brooklyn under the name of Vincent Circle.—Watertown boasts a circle numbering twenty-five.—A well-organized band of readers is established at Massena Center.—An enterprising club at Buffalo reports a large membership for 1900.—A dozen readers make up the circle at Canisteo.—Vincent Circle of Yonkers started out in October with twenty charter members and their weekly meetings continue to be full of interest and enthusiasm.

PENNSYLVANIA.—"A Chautauqua circle has been

organized at Ebensburg called the Brierbush Circle and numbers twenty-two members. Notwithstanding the thorny qualities suggested by the name it is a peaceful circle working harmoniously toward common intellectual ends. Although non-sectarian the circle owes its existence to the efforts of the pastor of the Congregational Church."—The newly organized band at East Mauch Chunk have begun by holding meetings every two weeks and find the study enjoyable and profitable.—An energetic band of workers are studying at Delmont.—Several ladies at Swissvale have begun the course.—Great enthusiasm is manifested among prospective C. L. S. C.'s in Bernville.

MARYLAND.—Excelsior is the inspiring name of a circle at Baltimore; the motto reads "The godlike power to do; the godlike aim to know." The emblem is the purple columbine.

MISSISSIPPI.—Seven readers at Corinth number among their members two graduates and two who have read a part of the course.

OHIO.—A vigorous organization of C. L. S. C. readers has been formed in connection with the Wesley M. E. Church of Cincinnati.

OKLAHOMA.—Cleveland is the home of a zealous C. L. S. C.

ILLINOIS.—A spirited class is studying at Shabbona.—A band of workers is making progress at Hopeland.

MINNESOTA.—Three busy women of St. Paul find time to interest themselves in circle work; they are known as the Minnehaha Circle and have taken the motto "None cease to rise but those who cease to climb."

IOWA.—The Teacher's Reading Course is taken up by interested students at Ute.

MISSOURI.—Grandin has a progressive circle of twenty-five up to date with their work and glad of the opportunity of studying the course; the officers are enthusiastic and the weekly meetings are successfully conducted by leaders appointed by the president. Many valuable suggestions are received from a Pioneer who is reading with the class.—A dozen members are studying at Clifton Heights and all take part in the bi-weekly meetings.

KANSAS.—The intellectual class at Morrowville find great pleasure in the C. L. S. C. and wish continued prosperity to the cause.—The circle at South Haven has a hopeful outlook.

COLORADO.—Earnest workers at Breckenridge are keeping up the course.

NEW MEXICO.—A strong band of circle students of Santa Fe call themselves the Ben Hur Club.

OLD CIRCLES.

MAINE.—A most earnest and energetic class reports from Springvale.

MASSACHUSETTS.—The majority of the circle members at Everett belong to the new class.—Graduates and undergraduates form the circle at Waltham, making a total membership of nineteen. The excellent programs carried out at the fortnightly meetings testify to their being zealous, wide-awake Chautauquans.—Enterprising circles are reading at Stoneham and Attleboro.

CONNECTICUT.—The weekly meetings of the circle at Redding are interesting and well attended.—The class at Winchester Center is composed of loyal Chautauquans.

NEW YORK.—Classes at Andover and Gouverneur are among the Chautauqua adherents of this state.

NEW JERSEY.—A long list of names makes up the circle roll at Vineland, several of whom are new members. The circle was delightfully entertained not long since by an interesting account of a trip to California by a lady who had recently returned from such a trip.—Circles are doing noble work at Dunellon and Toms River.—Belleville and Montclair have flourishing C. L. S. C. organizations.

PENNSYLVANIA.—The secretary of the Sellersville Circle writes: "Our circle is in a very prosperous condition. We have again commenced the pleasant and instructive work with five new mem-

bers. I am glad to say that the whole circle, comprising twenty-seven members, is benefited by the instructive reading of the C. L. S. C."—The Downington Circle is growing slowly but surely and with three new members has started the year with renewed interest. By the death of the president, last summer, they lost an active, earnest worker.—Live circles are keeping up the course at Parnassus, Millersburg, Philipsburg, Kane, and Summit Hill.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.—Hamlin Circle of Washington has a membership of twenty-six wide-awake and energetic Chautauquans.

KENTUCKY.—The Beechland Chautauqua Circle has been reorganized with a membership of eleven and expect good work as the president is a thorough and capable leader. The bi-monthly meetings have as one feature quotations from an author previously determined upon, with a sketch of his life, followed by conversation.

OHIO.—The Carroll Circle, of Carrollton, Class of '95, has been merged into the Carroll Alumni Association, with several members of the preceding classes.—The Christmas meeting of the circle at Springfield, held at the home of one of the members, was largely attended by the members and their invited guests. Each lady was presented with a French cap and a card on which was a quotation in French; at roll call the quotations were read, the pronunciation affording much amusement. The remainder of the evening was spent in a most delightful program of music and reading.

INDIANA.—The class at Knightstown is making rapid progress.

ILLINOIS.—Outlook Circle of Chicago has forty earnest, faithful students.—The class at Barclay has doubled in size since last year and is interested and enjoying the reading.—Energetic circles report from Rockford, Pekin, Sibley, and Washington.

MICHIGAN.—Mason has a faithful circle of Chautauquans.

WISCONSIN.—The Chautauqua cause has a number of loyal adherents at Orfordville.

MINNESOTA.—The Buffalo C. L. S. C. is a member of the state federation of clubs. The secretary says: "We find the C. L. S. C. work excellent in every way and just what we need."

IOWA.—A member of the circle at Marion writes: "We have a thriving circle of forty members, the same number we have had for three years. In trying the credit system talked of at Chautauqua this summer we find that our work progresses much better."—The Clara Cooley Circle of Dubuque has a promising outlook.—The Class of '99 is well represented in the club at Prairie City.—Sheldon and Tripoli Circles are good workers in the cause.

MISSOURI.—The Iantha, of Carthage, is a circle of fourteen graduates who are reading the French post-graduate course. — The Vernon Circle of Sedalia meets every Monday evening in the parlors of the First M. E. Church, and much interest is manifested in the instructive programs. — The Clyde Circle, Kansas City, has a goodly number of interested students.

SOUTH DAKOTA.—Among the many active Chautauquans at Deadwood are eleven members of the new class.

NEW MEXICO.—Las Vegas is the home of a thriving C. L. S. C.

UTAH.—The Sophoclean Circle of Provo City is in good condition and working with a will.

THE FLORIDA CHAUTAUQUA.

The thirteenth annual session of this well-known Assembly will be held at its home, DeFuniak Springs, Fla., February 18 to March 17. Dr. W. L. Davidson, the superintendent of instruction, has already issued a very handsome illustrated program. This Assembly is growing with each year. The

winter climate is delightful, and the splendid fellowships of such a resort attract multitudes of earnest people who desire to escape the rigors of the North.

There will be special school work in music, china painting, kindergarten, physical culture, art, embroidery work, elocution, and biblical study, in the hands of competent instructors. There will also be Sunday-school normal work and a children's normal department. New Testament Greek will also be made a feature.

Among the talent which this program offers appear the names of Madame Cecelia Eppenhousen Bailey and Miss Maria Louise Chambers, soloists; W. R. Burton, writer and reader of negro dialect; Mr. Charles Barnard, who will give his picture story, "The Town Behind a Fence"; Dr. T. Dewitt Talmage, Col. George W. Bain, Hon. Wallace Bruce, and the Rev. C. C. Albertson, lecturers.

Those needing a southern climate during February and March will not find a more delightful spot than this. A line dropped to Thomas F. McGourin, DeFuniak Springs, Fla., will bring the detailed program and all information.

TALK ABOUT BOOKS.

The Standard Dictionary.

The adoption of the Funk and Wagnalls dictionary* as the standard of style in the proof room of this magazine gives fitting occasion for again calling attention to the essential excellencies of that admirable work. Very little reflection will convince one that, while most reading people make use of some sort of dictionary for occasional reference as to spelling or pronunciation, it is only in the school, the publishing house, and the author's sanctum that a reliable authority on all that pertains to the form and use of words becomes a vital necessity. Any particular word-book is meritorious, then, in proportion as it meets the requirements of these classes—student and scholar, writer, printer, and proof-reader—and the hearty encomiums that are constantly pouring in from noted schoolmen far and wide and those best skilled in the bookman's craft leave no chance for doubt that the "Standard" has scored a grand and almost unequaled success. The present reviewer is able, after six months' constant use of the work, to indorse all of these manifold praises, and regrets that space permits scarcely more than a summary of the salient merits expounded at length by others. The convenient size and happy method of grouping obviate much of the inevitable drudgery of dictionary thumbing, and time is saved to the general searcher

by placing the most commonly desired information first. The elucidations are given with a clearness and conciseness not at all at variance with the breadth of treatment, and the definiteness and precision of statement inspire confidence even before the exceptional accuracy of the data is learned by experience. The simplified system of spelling, though hardly radical enough to be called a reform, is an agreeable advance toward orthoepical sanity in our exasperatingly unrulable language. A grateful favor which no one has been kind enough to confer before is the distinction of words properly capitalized and those not. Boon to the proof-reader's heart comes the cardinal virtue of uniformity—for to know that in compounds and divisions one can rely upon a printed authority, without keeping on the watch for inconsistencies, is a foretaste of Elysian bliss to that throneless potentate. The accuracy of pronunciation secured by the scientific alphabet and the scholarly etymological studies complete the service to philologists, and add their value in making the "Standard" a triumph of lexicography.

Biography.

"The Memoirs of Baron Thiébault."* rendered into excellent English and condensed by Arthur John Butler, is conspicuous for its wealth of detail. It contains a profusion of

* A Standard Dictionary of the English Language. Isaac K. Funk, D.D., Editor-in-Chief. 2318 pp. Full Russia, \$17. New York: Funk and Wagnalls Company.

* The Memoirs of Baron Thiébault. Translated and Condensed by Arthur John Butler. Two vols. 501 + 438 pp. \$7.00. New York: The Macmillan Company.

incidents connected with the life of this French general and *litterateur*, and it also presents a realistic picture of the momentous events which rent the French Monarchy in the latter part of the eighteenth and the first part of the nineteenth centuries. The peculiarity of Thiébauld's position enabled him to draw his picture of the revolutionary period "from the point of view of the ordinary law-abiding citizen." The two volumes furnish very interesting reading.

The volume called "The Recollections of Alexis de Tocqueville"* while giving an insight into the character and work of the author vividly portrays the period of French history extending from 1839 to 1854. The translation is the work of Alexander Teixeira de Mattos, and the frontispiece is a portrait in heliogravure of De Tocqueville.

Among the early scientists of America were physicists, astronomers, chemists, ornithologists, botanists, and geologists. Sketches of their lives and accounts of their works contained in a book called "Pioneers of Science in America"† show the beginning of investigation from which proceeded the wonderful scientific achievements of later years. The excellent biographies of which this volume is a collection were originally magazine articles, and especial care has been taken to make the work accurate as to facts, dates, and names. An excellent portrait of each of the fifty men precedes his biography, enabling the reader to become familiar with the faces as well as with the works of these men.

Philip Gilbert Hamerton‡ in opening his autobiography gives as one of his principal reasons for writing such a work the belief that he is the only one who knows enough about his own history to give a truthful account of it. And, though entering into minute details, he has produced an entertaining account, describing the events of his life in a style pure and simple, which makes the commonplace episodes interesting. He lived to write his history only to the time of his marriage, but his wife has completed it in the "Memoir," in which she has given a graphic account of his life from 1858 to the time of his death in 1894. The two are combined in a single volume, making a biography very complete and interesting.

"Famous Givers and Their Gifts"§ is a valuable

* The Recollections of Alexis de Tocqueville. Edited by the Comte de Tocqueville and now first translated into English by Alexander Teixeira de Mattos. 430 pp. \$4.50. New York: The Macmillan Company.

† Pioneers of Science in America. Edited and Revised by William Jay Youmans, M.D. With Portraits. 516 pp. \$4.00. New York: D. Appleton and Company.

‡ Philip Gilbert Hamerton. An Autobiography and a Memoir by His Wife. 608 pp. \$3.00. Boston: Roberts Brothers.

§ Famous Givers and Their Gifts. By Sarah K. Bolton. 382 pp. \$1.50. New York and Boston: Thomas Y. Crowell & Company.

acquisition to the Famous Book series by Mrs. Sarah K. Bolton. Much emphasis is given to the fact that men of wealth have contributed much to benefit and uplift mankind rather than to the methods by which fortunes are acquired.

A collection of popular lectures by David Gregg, D.D., is entitled "Makers of the American Republic."* A dozen subjects the author has treated in an attractive manner and many historical facts and patriotic sentiments are skilfully woven into the lectures.

Fiction. A story which strongly appeals to the tender emotions is called "The

Under Side of Things."† The development of the plot has necessitated the introduction of comparatively few characters, but that one most attractive to the reader is she whom the author has endowed with a coquettish gaiety beneath which one feels from the first there is the real woman into whose life some great sorrow has come as a refining influence. The intense pathos of this interesting story is relieved by the sayings and doings of two precocious children which move the reader to laughter.

A conscience is a good thing, but when abnormally developed it is apt to take all the enjoyment out of life. Such a conscience belonged to Judith Grover, one of Maria Louise Pool's characters, who becomes Mrs. Gerald‡ before the story which bears that title is quite half completed. She is perfectly upright in character, but too granitic and cruelly frank to win the sympathy of the reader. The story is well told and the author makes one feel the personality of every character.

A collection of short stories by Rudyard Kipling is called "Soldier Stories."§ As the title indicates, the tales pertain to the rough, exciting adventures of the soldier in British India, and while probably true to life we can but deprecate the coarseness of the language used by the characters, through which we must wade if we would learn the lessons to be found in the stories. The volume has been attractively bound in covers of green stamped with appropriate figures in gold.

A book to be read in a leisurely way for full appreciation is "The Other House."§ The dignity and purity of diction are maintained throughout the recital of a story enveloped by the author with an

* Makers of the American Republic. By David Gregg, D.D. 405 pp. \$1.50. New York: E. B. Treat.

† The Under Side of Things. By Lilian Bell. 241 pp.—

‡ Mrs. Gerald. By Maria Louise Pool. 339 pp. New York: Harper and Brothers.

§ Soldier Stories. By Rudyard Kipling. With Numerous Illustrations. 203 pp. \$1.50. New York: The Macmillan Company.

§ The Other House. By Henry James. 388 pp. \$1.50. New York: The Macmillan Company.

atmosphere of subtle mystery which allures the reader on to the end for the solution he seeks. There is a uniqueness too in the situations created from which a less clever writer might not have emerged so skilfully. There is a very tragic ending for a story which at the opening promises so little excitement.

From the first chapter of a novel called "The Sealskin Cloak" * the *dénouement* is discernible, and it is interesting to discover the method by which the author brings about the expected result—a method which includes much entertaining information concerning Malta, Egypt, and Australia. However, a judicious condensation with a view to making some of the passages less bookish would add interest to the story.

That superstition is the child of ignorance is forcefully demonstrated in a study of life among the creoles of Potosi. It is a touching story† of a potter and his little daughter who are avoided by the neighbors because they think the potter is a "hoodoo." The cause of this belief and how it was overcome is the basis of the tale, which will interest every reader.

New Editions. One of the English classics, FitzGerald's paraphrase of the quatrains of the Persian astronomer poet, appears in a handsome dress of red and gold. The present volume embodies a biographical sketch of FitzGerald, Tennyson's epilogue to him, an account of Omar of Naishápúr, with reprints of the first and fifth editions of the work, and a translation of Jámí's allegory of Saláman and Absál.‡ Copious notes are introduced and the variations in the different editions are shown. The print, paper, and form of the book are all that can be desired.

A new edition of "The Alhambra" || is a work of art which merits high praise. The text, printed in clear type, is abundantly illustrated with drawings of many of the places mentioned by the author, thus intensifying the impression of the picturesqueness of the Spanish country. Elizabeth Robins Pennell has written an excellent introduction to this edition, which is bound in green and gold artistically stamped.

Two of Balzac's works belonging to the vast and wonderful series of romances, novels, and tales which he termed "La Comédie Humaine" appear in

simple, neat binding with several fine etchings by way of illustration. "Béatrix,"* translated by James Waring, contains a critical and analytical preface by George Saintsbury. The same eminent literary critic is the author of the prefatory pages of "The Country Parson,"† which has been rendered into English by Ellen Marriage.

From the writings of John Burroughs eight essays have been selected for a volume called "A Year in the Fields."‡ There is something in it for each season of the year and the personality which speaks in his writings is carried into the illustrations, for each of the twenty pictures represents Mr. Burroughs in some favorite spot. It is such a book as one likes to read over and over, for it reveals to us the beauties in the little things of nature.

Antiquarians in literature will hail with pleasure the elegant edition of "Old English Ballads" || recently brought out by Macmillan. It contains twenty-six of the most famous ballads extant, beginning, naturally, with "Chevy Chase," prefaced most acceptably by H. W. Mabie. A wealth of masterly drawings, in their artistic simplicity beautifully appropriate to the text, and an especially decorative cover make a charming volume of these old-time lays.

History. In "The Rise and Growth of the English Nation" § the author, W. H. S. Aubrey, LL.D., has furnished the general reader a very complete history of the development of the English people. In a pleasing, lucid style he has written the three volumes which give, with historical facts showing "the varying phases of life, the formation of the national character, the continuity of great principles, and the growth of constitutional liberties," glimpses of the commercial and industrial life and of the literature, arts, and sciences of England. The history begins with the traditional era and closes with 1895. An index of forty pages and a long biographical list are admirable features of the work.

"The Beginners of a Nation" ¶ is the first part of a larger work to be called "History of Life in the United States," upon which Edward Eggleston has

* Béatrix. Translated by James Waring. With a Preface by George Saintsbury. 375 pp. \$1.50.—† The Country Parson. Translated by Ellen Marriage. Preface by George Saintsbury. 304 pp. \$1.50. New York: The Macmillan Company.

‡ A Year in the Fields. Selections from the Writings of John Burroughs. With Illustrations from Photographs by Clifton Johnson. 229 pp. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin and Company.

|| A Book of Old English Ballads. With an Accompaniment of Decorative Drawings by George Wharton Edwards and an Introduction by Hamilton W. Mabie. 187 pp. \$2.00. New York: The Macmillan Company.

§ The Rise and Growth of the English Nation. By W. H. S. Aubrey, LL.D. Three vols. 480 + 532 + 507 pp. \$4.50.—

¶ The Beginners of a Nation. By Edward Eggleston. 391 pp. \$1.50. New York: D. Appleton and Company.

* The Sealskin Cloak. By Rolf Boldrewood. 505 pp. \$1.25. New York: The Macmillan Company

† The Wonderful Wheel. By Mary Tracy Earle. 152 pp. New York: The Century Co.

‡ Rubáiyát of Omar Khayyám and the Saláman and Absál of Jámí. Rendered into English verse by Edward FitzGerald. 288 pp. \$1.00. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell and Company.

|| The Alhambra. By Washington Irving. With an Introduction by Elizabeth Robins Pennell. Illustrated with Drawings of the Places Mentioned by Joseph Pennell. 456 pp. \$2.00. New York: The Macmillan Company.

been at work for several years. He has in this volume departed from the usual method employed by historians and a study of the people, the character of the age, and the influences and motives which led to emigration and colonization are made prominent rather than the mere incidents connected with the early colony planting in our country. The entire work, including the historical notes in the "elucidations" at the close of each chapter, shows painstaking care on the part of the author, whose bright scholarly style has invested this history with unusual interest.

A valuable companion to any history of the United States is the "Guide to the Study of American History."* It contains a vast amount of information for the general reader, librarians, students, and teachers of this branch of learning. The value of a systematic study of history is set forth, and as a guide to such work a long list of topics is suggested and elaborate bibliographies are given. Model methods of conducting class-room recitations, reviews, and tests are described and hints are given on collateral reading and the use of public libraries. Many topics and references for investigations in the colonial history of America and in that of the United States make up the second part of the volume, which will prove invaluable to students.

William A. Mowry and Arthur May Mowry are the authors of "A History of the United States,"† intended primarily for school use though it is equally suitable for a reference and library book. It is very concise yet complete, giving a comprehensive view of the events connected with the formation, growth, and development of our nation. The problems which have agitated the country in the past few years are clearly stated and a chapter is devoted to an account of the development of letters and art. The explanations of the text in the form of side-notes include descriptions of buildings and brief biographical and historical sketches. The volume is profusely illustrated and abundantly supplied with maps and chronological tables.

A contribution to the literature on ethnology is Ratzel's history of the human race‡ translated from the second German edition by A. J. Butler. This is a subject which, to fully comprehend and study with any degree of satisfaction, needs to be amply illustrated, a fact realized by the author, for

nearly 1,200 illustrations are embodied in the volume, showing the differences in races by portraits and the successive stages of civilization by representations of weapons, industrial implements, idols, structures, etc. These are accompanied by interesting descriptions of the habits and customs of many of the barbaric peoples, making a work of high value to ethnological science.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

CHARLES WELLS MOULTON, BUFFALO.

Miller, Freeman E., A.M. *Oklahoma and Other Poems.*

THE OPEN COURT PUBLISHING COMPANY, CHICAGO.

Carus, Paul. *The Gospel of Buddha: According to Old Records.* Third, Revised Edition. Cloth, \$1.00; paper, 35 cts. Ribot, Thomas. *The Diseases of Personality.* Cloth, 75 cts; paper, 25 cts.

Goodwin, Rev. T. A., D.D. *Lovers Three Thousand Years Ago: As Indicated by the Song of Solomon.*

THE PETER PAUL BOOK COMPANY, BUFFALO.

Ford, Harriet. *Me an' Methuselah and Other Episodes.*

THE PENN PUBLISHING COMPANY, PHILADELPHIA.

Ellis, Edward S., A.M. *Comrades True, or Perseverance Versus Genius.*

FLEMING H. REVELL COMPANY, NEW YORK, CHICAGO, AND TORONTO.

Moody, D. L. *Sowing and Reaping.* 50 cts.

Lyall, Edna. *How the Children Raised the Wind.* 50 cts.

Lovett, Richard, M.A. *A Primer of Modern British Missions.*

With References to American Missions. 40 cts.

Gordon, Rev. A. J., D.D. *Risen with Christ: An Address on the Resurrection.* 30 cts.

Probable Sons. *By the author of Eric's Good News.* 50 cts.

Pauli, Mrs. George A. (Minnie E. Kenney). *The Making of a Hero and Other Stories for Boys.* 50 cts.

Taylor, Fannie J. *Adolph, and How He Found the Beautiful Lady.* 50 cts.

Brother Lawrence: *The Practice of the Presence of God the Best Rule of a Holy Life. Conversations and Letters of Nicholas Herman of Lorraine (Brother Lawrence.) Translated from the French.* 30 cts.

Moody, D. L. *Notes from My Bible; From Genesis to Revelation.* \$1.00.

Randall, Samuel Bond. *Walking With God.* 60 cts.

Speer, Robert E. *Studies of the Man Christ Jesus.* 75 cts.

Sinks, Rev. Perry Wayland. *Popular Amusements and the Christian Life.* 75 cts.

Thurston, Mabel Nelson. *"God's Box": A Home Missionary Episode.* Paper, 10 cts.

Whittle, D. W. *Gospel Pictures and Story Sermons for Children.* 50 cts.

Wright, Rev. Charles H. H., D.D. *A Primer of Roman Catholicism.* 40 cts.

ROBERTS BROTHERS, BOSTON.

Whiting, Lillian. *The World Beautiful. Second Series.* \$1.00.

Hansson, Laura Marholm. *Six Modern Women. Psychological Sketches. Translated from the German by Hermione Ramsden.* \$1.25.

Hamerton, Philip Gilbert. *Imagination in Landscape Painting.*

Illustrated. \$2.00.

Machen, Arthur. *The Three Impostors, or The Transmutations.*

Taylor, Una. *Nets for the Wind.* \$1.00.

ERNEST E. RUSSELL, NEW YORK.

Russell, Ernest E. *The Reason Why: A Story of Fact and Fiction.*

SCOTT, FORESMAN & CO., CHICAGO.

Reed, Elizabeth A., A.M. *Primitive Buddhism: Its Origin and Teachings.* \$1.00.

FREDERICK A. STOKES COMPANY, NEW YORK

Moore, F. Frankfort. *The Sale of a Soul.*

W. M. WELCH & COMPANY, CHICAGO.

Cromwell, A. D. *Practical Child Study.*

EDGAR S. WERNER, NEW YORK.

Howard, F. E. *The Child-Voice in Singing.*

THOMAS WHITTAKER, NEW YORK.

Monod, Wilfred. *He Suffered, or Human Suffering Interpreted by Jesus Christ. Translated from the French by Annie D. Perkins.* 60 cts.

Mulchahey, James, S. T. D. *The Inspiration of History.* \$1.00.

Walden, Treadwell. *The Great Meaning of Metanoia: An Undeveloped Chapter in the Life and Teaching of Christ.* \$1.00

*Guide to the Study of American History. By Edward Channing, Ph.D., and Albert Bushnell Hart, Ph.D. 487 pp. Boston: Ginn & Company.

†A History of the United States. By William A. Mowry, A.M., Ph.D. and Arthur May Mowry. A.M. 456 pp. Introductory price \$1.04. New York, Boston, and Chicago: Silver, Burdett and Company.

‡The History of Mankind. By Professor Friedrich Ratzel. Translated by A. J. Butler, M.A., with Introduction by E. B. Tylor, D.C.L., F.R.S. Vol. I. 510 pp. \$4.00. New York: The Macmillan Company.

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THIS is indeed an era of unread books. In this bustling, feverish age of ours few are the favored individuals who can lay claim to being "well read." The vast majority of educated people finish their "serious" reading just as they begin to be able really to appreciate the treasures bequeathed to us by the master-minds of the past.

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with those colossal utterances of our own Daniel Webster; the finest essays of Bacon with those of Emerson; the style of Herodotus with Macaulay; in wit and humor the best is to be found while all that is vulgar or debasing has been eliminated. In that most popular form of literature—fiction—the choice of writers extends from those of ancient Egypt to Bunner, Kipling, Stevenson, and Bourget; while in poetry it extends from Homer to such modern singers as Tennyson and Longfellow. In Politics, Letters, Biography, Sciences, and Philosophy, Theology and Pulpit Oratory, Drama and the Theatre, likewise, the names of the greatest exponents are to be found. There are, moreover, a host of legends, fables, antiquities, mythologies, folk-songs and folk-lore.

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The introductory sets available will be so quickly claimed that arrangements have been made with the Club to reserve a limited number of sets for the special benefit of THE CHAUTAUQUAN'S readers. Those who first apply, mentioning this magazine, will secure them. Applications for special prices (and sample pages) should therefore be made at once to Harper's Weekly Club, or Fifth Avenue, New York.

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The method of correspondence teaching is very easily understood. The instructor, a teacher in one of our leading colleges, corresponds directly with each student; supplements the regular college text-books with printed direction sheets, personal letters, and topics for especial study; he requires written recitations on every lesson, carefully criticises them, and returns them with such suggestions, references, and comments as each may require; and he calls attention to any statements in the text-books that may be, unusually difficult or misleading.

The great disadvantage of individual study is that the student wastes time and labor on points that might be easily explained by a teacher, that are unimportant, or that are misleading. This is entirely obviated by the Chautauqua method. The correspondence student can use his time and spend his efforts in the most productive way, and the written recitations insure that he learns the whole of each lesson as it should be learned before he leaves it. There is no cutting or dodging of difficult questions.

The faculty of Chautauqua College is composed of members of the faculties of such institutions as Yale, Wesleyan, University of Chicago, University of Wisconsin, Ohio University, Northwestern University, and Vassar. The courses offered are not especially Chautauqua courses, but regular college courses. The same books are used and the instructors are just as exacting by correspondence as they are in their regular class recitations.

For those, however, who are unable to undertake regular college courses, a number of preparatory courses have been arranged. These are conducted by the same instructors

and lead up to the work of the college proper. Any one who has a common English education and is prepared to do serious work may study successfully by correspondence.

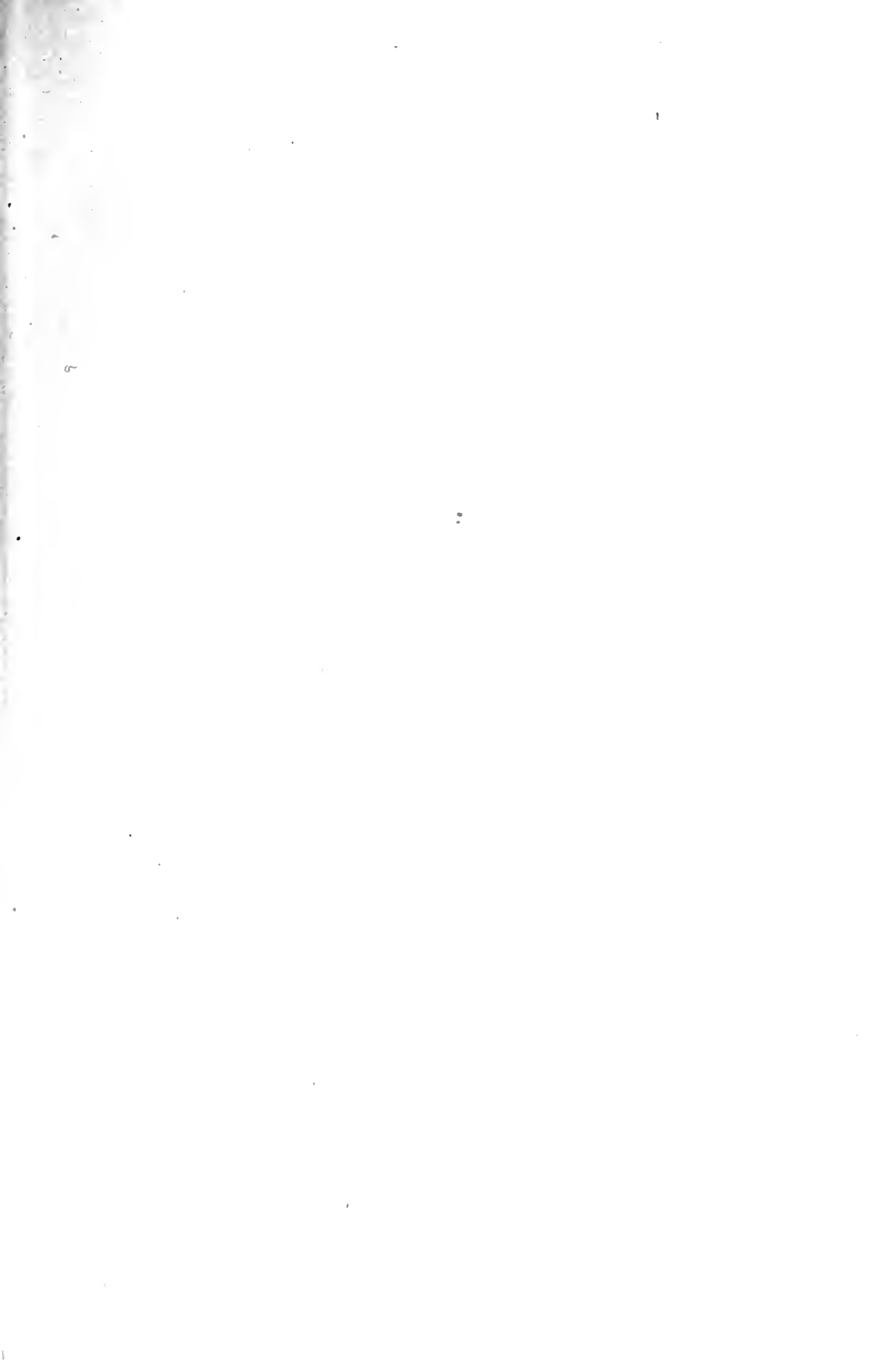
Among the subjects included in the curriculum are Latin, Greek, German, French, Spanish, Italian, English, Mathematics, Psychology, Political Economy, History, Physics, Chemistry, Geology, Biology, Hebrew, New Testament Greek, and Ecclesiastical History. Students may enroll for any subject in which they are interested without binding themselves to take any others.

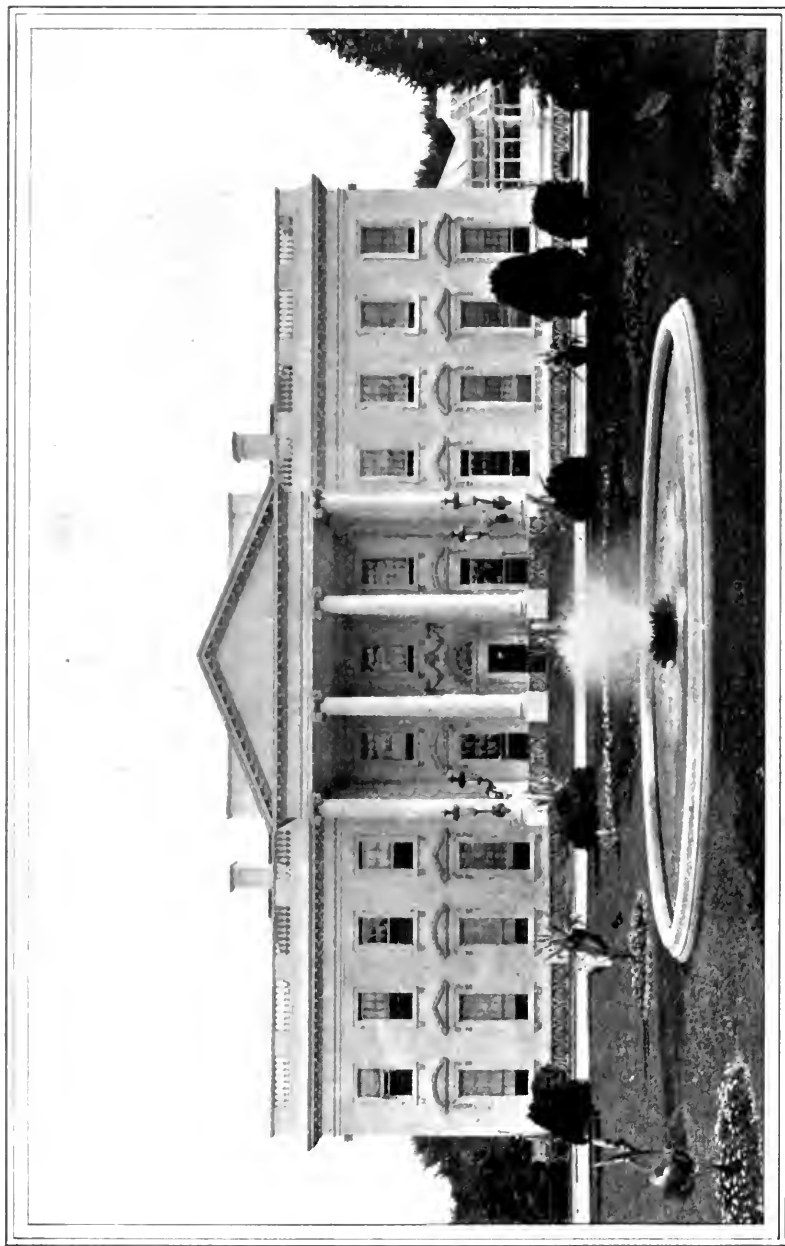
Those who are interested in the modern languages will find a large number of attractive courses outlined in the Calendar. The difficulty of learning the correct pronunciation is a real one; but it is also a difficulty which confronts students in the class room. To acquire a correct pronunciation requires years of daily association with those whose language is being studied. By following the definite directions of the instructors, however, the correct pronunciation is very closely approximated; and the thorough mastery of the languages for reading, writing, and commercial use can certainly be accomplished by correspondence.

The courses in Spanish and Italian are conducted by Miss Cornelia H. B. Rogers, Ph.D., instructor in Vassar College. Courses are adapted to the needs of beginners as well as of those who wish to study the literature of these languages in its original form.

The School of English, conducted by Professor W. D. McClintock of the University of Chicago, is one of the most popular departments of the College. The work is arranged logically, and practical results are accomplished in each lesson. In all the courses the student is made to cultivate exactness, brevity, and ease of expression; and at the same time there is so much variety in each course that the work is always interesting and attractive.

For full information regarding Chautauqua College, address John H. Daniels, Executive Secretary, Station C, Buffalo, N. Y. Always enclose stamp for reply.





See page 690.

THE EXECUTIVE MANSION OF THE UNITED STATES.

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No. 6.

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REQUIRED READING FOR THE CHAUTAUQUA LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CIRCLE.

HOMERIC ART.*

BY PROFESSOR ALFRED EMERSON, PH.D.

OF CORNELL UNIVERSITY.

ALL that has yet been done for the pictorial and sculptural illustration of the Homeric poems, from Polygnotus¹ and the Attic vase-painters and the antique Odyssey landscapes of the Esquiline Mount² down to Flaxman, Thorwaldsen,³ and the two Friedrich Prellers⁴ in our own century, sheds no light whatever on real Homeric life and its artistic adornment, however great the artistic merit of the extant compositions may be. For whatever is Greek at all in the compositions of the modern artists is borrowed from those of classical Greek artists who lived, moved, and had their being no nearer to the age of Agamemnon than we are to that of Frederick Barbarossa.⁵

The earliest extant documents of classical Greek art are scarcely earlier than the era

of the permanent establishment of the Olympic Games. This, as every schoolboy knows, was 776 B. C. Whatever is older than this it is safe to call preclassical. In the case of all figured sculptures and paintings, what we have of seventh and sixth century designs is still of incredible rudeness. Yet the skilled wood-carvers of that period did not shrink from complex historical, mythological, and allegorical compositions, as we can judge by a Greek antiquarian's elaborate description, written in the second century after Christ, of the carved and inlaid designs on the cedar ark of Cypselus, tyrant of Corinth, this relic of eighth century Peloponnesian

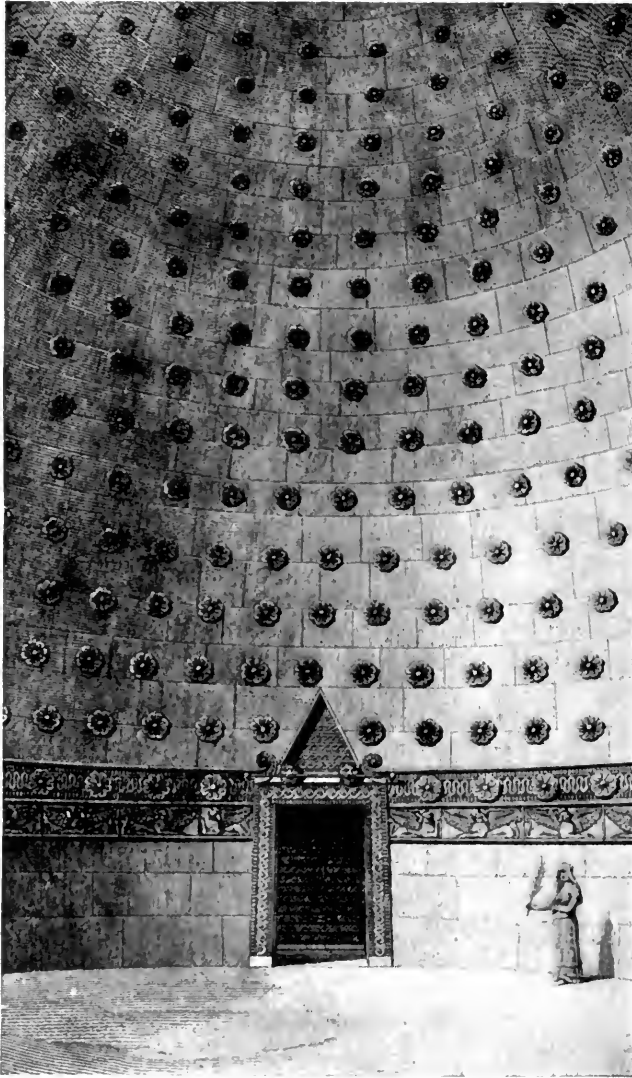


From Schuchardt's "Schliemann."

GOLD CUP FROM A GRAVE.

art having been religiously preserved at Olympia down to the age of the Antonines. The same union of artistic awkwardness and ambition is observed in the art of the Christian Middle Ages.

*The Notes on the Required Reading in THE CHAUTAUQUAN will be found following those on the books of the course, in the C. I. S. C. Department of the magazine.



Restored by Charles Chipiez.

From Perrot and Chipiez' "Art in Primitive Greece."

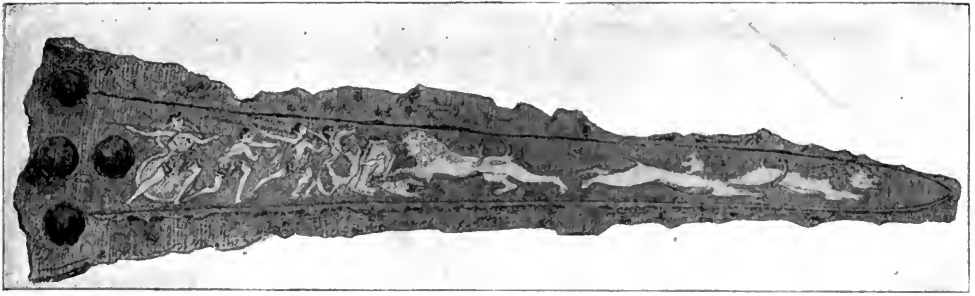
INTERIOR OF MYCENÆAN TOMB.

In view, then, of medieval analogy no less than of the very primitive state of Greek formative art centuries after the first efflorescence of the colonial civilization of the Eolians and Ionians on the shores of Asia Minor, of which the Homeric poems are the literary residuum, only two solutions of the problem presented by the developed condition of the formative arts portrayed in *Iliad* and *Odyssey* are possible. The bards who gave the traditions of the elder Achean

not an artistic retroprojection of the poets, but was quite as essential a feature of their traditional material as it was of Tennyson's. The Homeridae were perhaps as well aware of the far cry from the time of which they sang to that in which they sang as Tennyson or William Morris.

The civilization the Homeric poems describe wears the appearance of having been overthrown before the completion of these poems themselves. In this case the splen-

age their final poetic form may have projected notions derived from their own rich artistic environment into the pictures which the shuttle of their fancy wove across the warp of tradition. Or it may be they merely rearranged and versified what was already embodied in those traditions. In either case we must keep in mind that the poet's conception of beauty is of his time and not of ours. As a matter of fact, the *Iliad* and *Odyssey* portray a richer and very different art from that which we encounter in the extant relics of early classical Greek times. To those familiar with the latter it is obvious that Homeric civilization bears a semi-oriental impress, which I should call pre-Hellenic if it were permitted to limit the application of the adjective Hellenic, which strictly denotes only Greek nationality, to the historic civilization of the Ionians, Eolians, and Dorians, hitherto alone familiar to classical scholars. We may conclude that the splendor of the Homeric civilization was



From Schuchardt's "Schliemann."

Athens, National Museum.

INLAID DAGGER-BLADE FROM A SHAFT GRAVE AT MYCENE

dor of its vanished but long-remembered art might well have exceeded the modest beginnings of the newer culture that had everything to do over again.

If the Homeric civilization was merely the civilization of the aforetime Achæans, or common to them and their Trojan adversaries, we may assume with great probability that it was partly wiped out by the Dorian conquest of the Peloponnesus, a convulsion to which the Greek chronologists assigned the date 1104 B. C., three generations after the beginning of the Trojan War.

The first passages that come to the mind of the Homeric student when the question as to the character of Homeric art is raised are the lay relating to the forging of the shield and the lay of the Phæaciens. Both, one in the description of the figured decoration of an ornate shield, as executed in metal by Hephaestus,⁶ and the other in the equally suggestive account given of the palace of Alcinous, seem to reflect the Homeric poet's highest conception of noble-figured art on the one hand and of noble architecture on the other. But a glamour of fable, brighter,



From Furtwängler and Löschke's "Mykenische Vasen."

Mycenæ.

TAPESTRY PATTERNS PAINTED ON EARTHENWARE



From Perrot and Chipiez' "Art in Primitive Greece."

MARCHING SOLDIERS ON A FRAGMENT OF EARTHENWARE.

and to most readers denser than elsewhere in the Iliad and Odyssey, hovers over these marvels of pristine art and the manner of their introduction in the story. The shield of Achilles is made by the god Hephæstus for his sister goddess Thetis, amid the fairy-tale properties of his golden workshop. The palace and hearth of Alcinous, beloved of the gods, are the very heart of the enchanted island-home of the sinless and deathless Phæacians, far off in western seas unseen of mortal eye since the adventure of Odysseus. On the wet horizon of an old sailors' yarn the poet conjures up a cloud-city, built of the same dream-stuff, apparently, as the turrets of Vineta and El Dorado.

A sheen as of the moon or of the sun
Filled the tall house of Alcinous the king,
Where brazen walls into the depthward run
From threshold inward, clad with a crystal ring
Of wainscot. Doors of gold closed the stout hall,
Swung between silver posts that rose from brass.
The knobs were gold; the lintel that crowned all,
Silver. And facing those that inward pass

Sat gold and silver dogs Hephæstus wrought
With cunning art to watch and fend the ways
And castle of Alcinous from aught
Of harm, deathless themselves to the end of days.

Within, gold lads on fair-built altars stood,
With lighted torches burning in their hands



From Schliemann's "Tiryns."

TERRA-COTTA COW.

When night should fall to light the guests at food.

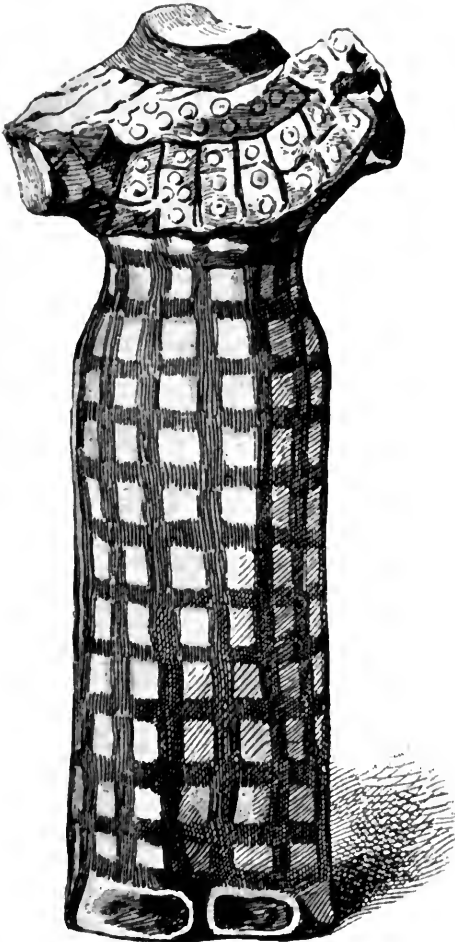
And maidens spun soft wool to snowy strands.

Without the yard and gates, a fourfold fence
Marked off a close. There, tall and gleaming trees,
Pear trees, pomegranates, apples, stood in dense
Array, and olives, figs more sweet than these,
Whose fruit to spoil or fail was never known
Through frost or summer blight, but groweth fair
By softest zephyrs into ripeness blown.
Till apple hangs by apple, pear by pear.
Ripe fig by fig, and purple grape by grape.

—*Odyssey, Book VII., ll. 84 to 121.*

Scheria⁷ is a grown-folks' version of
Robert Louis Stevenson's delightful fairy-
land,

Where all the children dine at five
And all the playthings come alive.



After Perrot and Chipiez.

PAINTED TERRA-COTTA IDOL FROM TIRYNS.



From Furtwängler and Loschke's "Mykenische Thongefässe"

A MYCENÆAN PITCHER

The gold and silver dogs do not molest friendly visitors, but would certainly bite an enemy of Alcinous. Our own little ones would unhesitatingly confer the epithet of "good dogs" on hounds of such excellent habits. The golden youths inside the hall perform their spectacular duty with modest pride. The poet, with a humorous twinkle, characterizes their stone supports as "well-built altars," lest his hearers should infer from their standing on pedestals that they are only statues. The shuttle of fancy plays freely across the woof of reality. But a foundation of reality is there. A while ago I translated the word which describes the material of the wainscot, *kyanos*, by "crystal." It really means lapis lazuli, or blue glass.

Ten years ago it was my privilege, together with Messrs. M. L. D'Ooge, of the University of Michigan, Joseph Thacher

Clarke, with whom I had been excavating a Greek temple in Magna Græcia, Walter Leaf, the translator and editor of Homer's *Iliad*, Ernest A. Gardner, and a number of German scholars, to visit the ruins of the pre-Homeric city of Tiryns, in Argolis, accompanied by one of its excavators, Dr. Dörpfeld. Standing in the main hall of what was once the royal palace of Tiryns, of which enough to establish its ground-plan had been laid bare in 1884, Dr. Dörpfeld recalled his own collegiate teacher's doctrine that the "glass wainscot" was the last fabulous touch wanted to place the castle of the king of Scheria entirely in the folk-lore atmosphere. He compared the episode of the Phæacians to those German fairy tales in which venturesome princes ride silver-shod ponies up the slippery slopes of glass mountains,

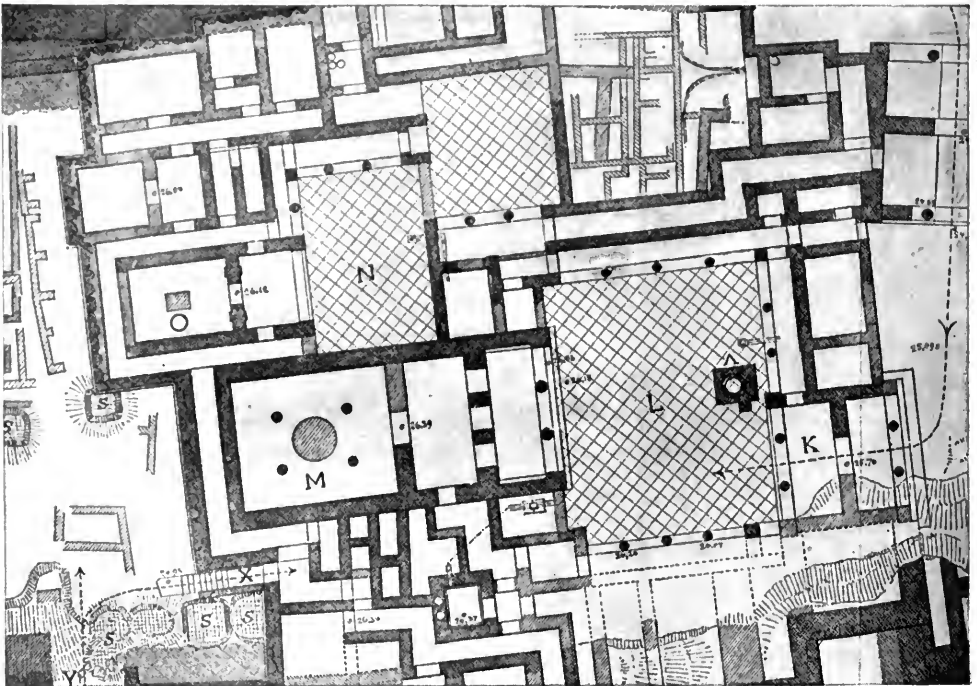


From Schliemann's "Tiryns."

After Perrot and Chipiez.

WALL-FRESCO FROM TIRYNS.

to win enchanted princesses out of glass castles. Dr. Dörpfeld then stooped down and picked from the rubbish about the crumbling base of the west wall of the Tirynthian *megaron* a handful of blue glass cubes, remnants of the glass-inlaid alabaster dado with which the luxurious taste of its pristine inhabitants had deco-



From Schuchardt's "Schliemann."

PLAN OF THE HOMERIC PALACE OF TIRYNS.

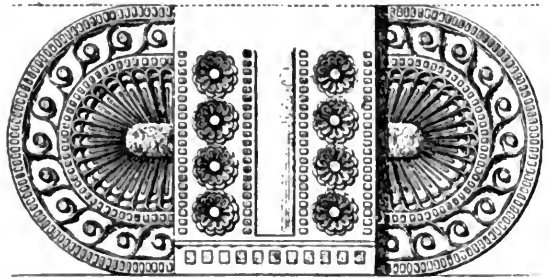
rated the great hall. Remembering how the critics who questioned the authenticity of Schliemann's plans of similar constructions on the height of Troy-Hissarlik were silenced by the subsequent discovery of the Homeric palace ruins of Tiryns and Mycenæ, our little company was ready, after the blue-glass demonstration, to admit the probability of the doors and door-frames of Homer's royal palaces having been plated with precious metal like those of the house of Alcinous and of Solomon's temple.

Of the temples of gods in Homeric days we learn nothing from the Iliad and Odyssey except that they had high roofs and stone thresholds, that they were sometimes jointly occupied by deity and royalty, and that they sometimes contained standing or seated figures of the worshiped deity. The solution of the problem in the light of archeological discoveries seems to be that a hard and fast line was not yet drawn between sacred and secular architecture, that the main hall, or hall of state, in the palace of a Homeric king was at one and the same time the men's common room and the place where the household gods received their meed of worship on an altar that was also the household hearth.

The plan of a portion of the palace ruin at Tiryns which appears among our illustrations relieves me from a lengthy description. The palace crowned the summit of a tremendously fortified cyclopean⁹ citadel, occupying rather more than a fifth of the inner precinct of the walled area. It faces south, in which direction, outside of the yard gate K, there is a large quadrangle unoccupied by architectural remains, where perhaps rows of fruit trees were planted, as described in the Odyssey. Access to the palace was had only through the handsomely built gateway K itself, except for a postern which does not appear on the plan. L was a concrete-paved, colonnaded yard, in which, as the reader of the Odyssey remembers, a great part of the more public life of the castle went on. It contains a slaughter pit. M is the men's hall, with two wooden columns on stone bases set be-

tween the square, wood-encased ends of projecting side walls. From the pillared porch thus closed in a treble doorway opened into a wide fore-chamber, whence a central pair of double doors gave access to the fire hall. In the middle of this a clear-story supported by four wooden columns permitted the escape of the smoke from a low round hearth. The plan dimensions of this men's hall at Tiryns are about thirty-two by forty feet. Its walls are in a state of advanced disintegration.

There is some reason to believe that the alabaster and glass dado just mentioned, and which corresponds so closely to the glass wainscot in the Homeric description of a similar hall, originally occupied a position at the top of the wall instead of at the bottom. The fallen frieze was reset, it



From Schuchardt's "Schliemann."

Tiryns.

ALABASTER FRIEZE INLAID WITH BLUE GLASS.

seems, as a surbase. The remainder of the wall was plastered and gaily painted with ornamental and figured designs. The ruled and colored decoration of the floor formed a red and blue plaid carpet pattern. We know from the Odyssey that it was customary to give the floor a grand wash-up after a banquet, the table habits of Homeric heroes, let alone of Penelope's disorderly suitors, being anything but neat. From the same source we gather that spears were set around one or more of the central columns as we sometimes dispose of billiard cues, and that other weapons were hung to pegs on them, subject to becoming as badly smoke-soiled, eventually, as the black pine rafters of the ceiling.

At Tiryns the women's *megaron* (O) very closely resembles the men's. It also has a similar, but smallish, forecourt (N). Here,

toward the front of the palace, another communication between its more private and its more public section existed. No staircases have been located. In substance an Achean royal castle was a *pueblo* of lean-to cabins clustered around two or three pretentious *estufas* or common rooms. Schliemann's last excavations at Troy-Hissarlik, and the active Greek Archeological Society's subsequent discovery in 1886, before the doubts of the captious in regard to the genuineness of the Trojan and Tirynthian complexes had subsided, of the ruins of an Achean palace under the foundations of an early Doric temple at Mycenæ, revealed the plans of *megaron* structures similar to those of Tiryns. Dr. Dörpfeld opines, in opposition to James Fergusson and Charles Chipiez, who have devoted much attention to the problem of the right restoration of the temple of Solomon, that its famous brass pillars Iachin and Boaz did not stand clear, but occupied the same position in the façade of the building as the paired wooden columns did in the Homeric *megara*. Who would have supposed that the evidences of the Homeric civilization would finish by solving questions of biblical archeology?

Sidon and Cyprus, seats of Phœnician culture, are designated once or twice in the Iliad and Odyssey as the source of some object of superior industrial art.

It has been too hastily inferred from the comparison of passages in the Iliad and Odyssey with numerous extant specimens of Mycenæan goldsmithery of obviously oriental affinities, (1) that the Homeric Greeks had no art of their own; (2) that the art treasures they possessed were imported ware; (3) that the Homeric ascription of objects of art to Hephæstus is a poetic way of describing them as fine specimens of anonymous foreign workmanship. It is true that both the traditional testimony and the extant relics betray oriental influences. But the practise of the textile arts, of pottery, armory, cabinet-work, and architecture must always be in the main a domestic practise. We have already obtained some notion of the splen-

dor of Achean architecture, defensive, domestic, and sacred. Scantness of space precludes us from adducing abundant monumental evidence of the wide-spread practise on Achean soil of an original and majestic style of sepulchral architecture, to which, from the fine examples at Mycenæ, we now give the generic name Mycenæan. Chipiez' clever restoration of the interior of the so-called "Tomb of Agamemnon," or "Treasury of Atreus" at Mycenæ illustrates one of the most interesting of these examples.

Naturally no specimens of the textile art of Helen's day have come down to us, but its variety and excellence are attested by many carpet and tapestry patterns carved and painted on flat and curved surfaces of stone, plaster, wood, metal, and especially of terra-cotta. For it is in its decorated earthenware, even more than in its princely treasures of hammered gold and silverware, and in its too imperfectly preserved architecture that the wonderful originality and fecundity of the Mycenæan civilization is chiefly apparent. In short, as Mr. Flinders Petrie has demonstrated by comparison of the undated relics of Mycenæ with analogous articles found in datable Egyptian graves, Mycenæ was from about 1400 to 1100 B.C. the principal seat of a powerful and magnificently artistic civilization, coextensive, or a trifle more than coextensive, with the later empire of the Ægean Greeks, a civilization in touch with Egypt and Phœnicia, and artistically dominant, as we have latterly learned, within the walls of hostile Troy. This art and Homeric art were one and the same.

It is most noteworthy, and in contrast with the classical Greek habit, that the subjects of Homeric figured art, both in the poems and in the concrete relics, are invariably drawn from life and never, idols excepted, from mythology or romantic fiction.

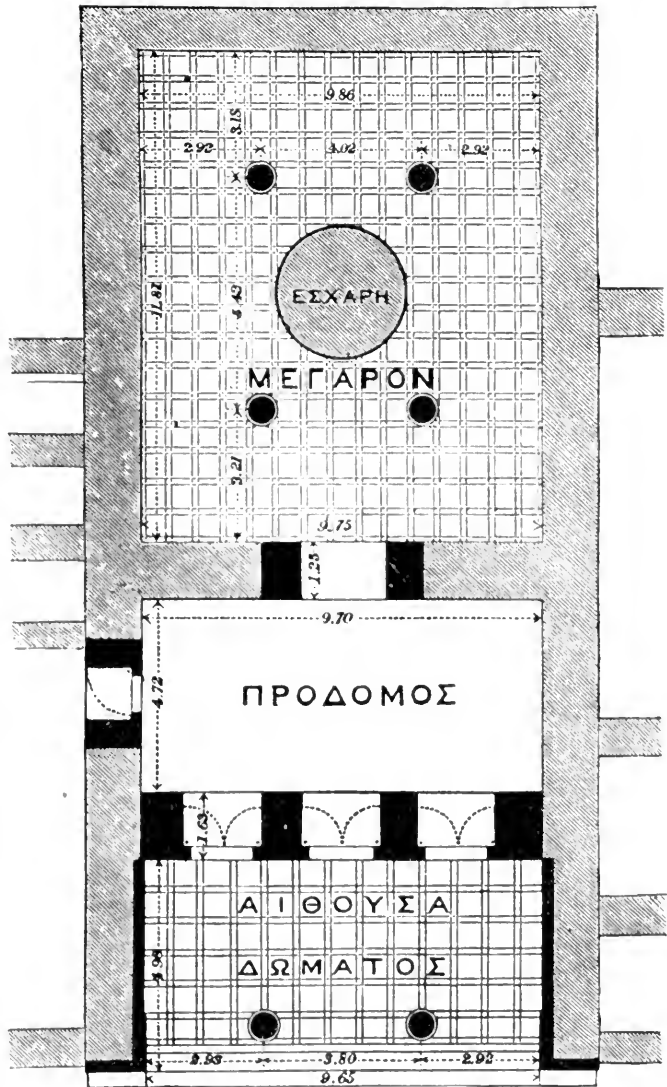
In the creation of complexer unities the figured art of the Homeric Age was advanced far beyond the stage represented by the stone and hammered bronze war chronicles of a Rameses II. and a Shal-

maneser. A number of curious Mycenæan sword and dagger blades, of a technique akin to that of the metal pin trays, stained and stamped with floral and animal subjects, which Japan has lately been sending us, probably illustrate the precise industrial and artistic processes employed by Hephæstus in the fashioning of the famous shield of Achilles, as described in *Iliad XVIII.*, 468-608.

The able curators of the Greek National Museum of Prehistoric Antiquities discovered, in cleaning the bronze weapons Dr. Schliemann had found in the shaft graves of Mycenæ, no less than five sword and dagger blades inlaid with figure subjects in the manner the lay of the shield postulates. On the finest of them the hunting of three lions by four armed men and the chasing of water-fowl along a flowery stream by panthers are the subjects depicted, in tin, silver, and gold of two colors on a bronze ground differing in color from the body of the dagger blade. A very Homeric detail are drops of blood that spatter the

plumage of a wounded bird, exactly as the flanks of a wounded bull are said to have been spattered on the shield. They are done with particles of a reddish alloy of gold. In both cases, actual daggers and storied shield, the pictorial elements dominate the sculptural. The writer would go further and say that the metallic illumination of these blades and of the shield savors strongly of the textile art. Or, to give a more general interpretation to Aristarchus' conjecture that the author of

the *Iliad* was acquainted with a tapestry chronicle of the tale of Troy embroidered by Helen, he makes bold to assert that without such feminine finger skill as hers was, and its exercise by generations of Achean women, the heroic civilization of Greece would have lacked the artistic flavor that is no small part of its charm even in the mere literary reflection; and then we should never have had the *Iliad* and *Odyssey* as they now are. There is, as Brunn has observed, in the art-created unity



From Schuchardt's "Schliemann."

THE MEN'S HALL, OR MEGARON, AT TIRYNS.

of the Achillean shield, which dictates and springs from the decorative balance and significant coordination of its topical subjects, a premonition of the triumph of Greek art in such works as the Parthenon and the Olympian Zeus¹⁰ of Phidias.

Of Homeric pictorial art in the commoner modern acceptation, that is to say of actual pictures, but little is left. This little is in the form of badly shattered fresco decorations from the plaster walls of Tiryns, and of equally shattered pieces of pictured earthenware. In the ornamental designs and fillings painted on these surfaces the Mycenæan decorations show the same fondness for spiral lines that appears in much of their carved or hammered work. Men, horses, cattle, water-fowl, the cuttlefish and nautilus, and chimerical monsters such as griffons and female sphinxes with outspread wings of many colors were their favorite figure subjects.

The crudeness of the Mycenæan pictures preserved on potsherds accords well with

what is extant, in clay or metal, of modeling in the round. Did Queen Hecuba of Troy pay her devotions to idols as clumsy as these? The energy with which the search for monumental evidences of the old Achean civilization has been prosecuted since Pathfinder Schliemann's premature death in 1889 has lately brought some specimens of Mycenæan art to light that would do honor, for vivacity of subject, sportsmanly grasp of animal character, coupled with freedom of movement and drawing, and execution, to any age. For this reason the two gold cups found at Amyclæ are ascribed by learned archeologists to a period subsequent to the Dorian conquest of Argolis and Laconia. A more romantic spirit inclines the layman to believe that they were made by Hephæstus for King Phædimus of Sidon to give Helen, together with the silver crater her husband afterward gave Telemachus. After her death they naturally remained at Amyclæ, the Laconian Aix-la-Chapelle.

THE HOMERIC POEMS.

BY PROFESSOR WILLIAM CRANSTON LAWTON.

OF ADELPHI COLLEGE.

I.

CONNECTED and authentic Greek history begins with Herodotus, who lived about the middle of the fifth century B. C. Tradition enabled him to trace events back intelligently for perhaps a century—to Solon and Pisistratus, Cræsus and Cyrus the Great. Beyond them nearly everything was mythical, or at least uncertain. But Homer lived, according to Herodotus, "four hundred years before my time." That is, the Heroic Age, so vividly depicted in the *Iliad* and *Odyssey*, is separated by a great gulf from the historic Greek race and life. Moreover, through the whole warp and woof of the Trojan tale run the golden threads of the supernatural and mythical. These cannot be drawn out leaving any texture of historical truth behind. The *Iliad* and *Odyssey* should be read first—and

most enjoyably—as ideal poems, appealing to the imagination. All attempts to use them as quarries of historical or archeological facts may come in later, if at all.

The *Iliad*, an epic poem of fifteen thousand hexameter verses, is the earliest extant monument of European literature, though it must have been really the final success of a long-lasting artistic school. It is the most vivid and magnificent picture of war ever drawn. The softer scenes are only used to heighten the pathos and the terror.

Troy, once proverbial for wealth and divine favor, has now been for ten long years beleaguered by the hundred thousand Greeks whose watch-fires still light up nightly the Hellespontine shore. Even the quarrelsome council of Olympian gods keep their eyes and thoughts intent, almost solely,

on Priam's doomed city. The guilty cause of the strife is the prince Paris, or Alexander, favorite child of the aged Trojan king. He has carried off from Sparta the lovely Helen, wife of Menelaus. The latter has induced all the princes of Greece to aid in righting the wrong, and his brother Agamemnon is recognized by all as the commander-in-chief.

The mightiest warrior, however, in the Grecian host is Achilles, son of the lovely sea-nymph Thetis by the mortal Peleus, king of Phthia, a little domain in southeastern Thessaly. The Trojans, though commanded by the valiant prince Hector, dare not come down into the plain to meet Achilles, but remain cooped up in the town. He has also led forays to destroy many neighboring cities, and the booty has enabled the Greeks to subsist in the plain while their vessels are slowly rotting on the shore. (Perhaps in his absence occurred the events which Helen, with doubtful good taste, depicted in her great tapestry—

Many a battle of knightly Trojans and mailed
Acheans,

Fought for the sake of herself, and under the hands
of the war-god.)

From one of these captured towns, after slaying her husband, Achilles brought back to camp the lovely Briseis. She has since gained influence over her fierce young captor. Indeed his chosen comrade, Patroclus, has often assured her that Achilles will lead her home with him to Phthia, and there make her his lawful wife. Much more recently, as it seems, Achilles has also sacked "lofty-gated Thebè," the childhood home of Andromache, who is now the brave Hector's wife. Her father and seven brothers perished in the storm.

Among the women captured in Thebè was included, by some unexplained chance, a young girl Chryseis, daughter of Apollo's priest Chryses, in the town of Chrysa, which seems to have lain much nearer to Troy. In the allotment she fell to Agamemnon's share. At precisely this point the curtain rises in the Iliad, the facts thus far stated being gathered from passages later in the poem.

Homer does not really demand from his hearers much knowledge of the myth, but carefully indicates its chief outlines in the course of the first thousand verses. He repeatedly declares his own ignorance and appeals to the muse for inspiration. It is our impression that even in the next century little or no popular tradition existed, independent of the Iliad itself. Rather the numberless later additions to the story seem like ingenious creations of the poets themselves. Many details now long familiar and dear to us were certainly unknown to Homer.

Apollo supports Chryses' demand for his child's release by sending a deadly pestilence upon the Greeks. The Grecian Calchas—also Apollo's priest and prophet—explains the cause of the god's wrath. Achilles stoutly supports Calchas in council, and by rash words draws upon himself Agamemnon's jealous anger. Chryseis is indeed sent home under noble escort, but Agamemnon's heralds fare to Achilles' cabin and lead away the reluctant Briseis, to fill the young girl's place in Agamemnon's harem. Thus the commander, without even Paris' excuse, not blinded by Aphrodite but in childish resentment, has committed almost precisely the same outrage as that for which he is himself striving to destroy the Trojan kingdom. The reluctant departing Briseis and the lovesick Achilles are especially familiar in Hellenic art, but of course the Pompeian wall-painting or Attic vase is as purely imaginative as any modern picture. A fifth century Greek knew no better than we how Homer's characters looked.

Achilles' wrath at this outrage is the avowed subject of the Iliad. He retires to his cabin, Zeus promises Thetis to avenge his wrong, Hector boldly sallies forth with his Trojans.

Eventually most of the minor Greek leaders are crippled or slain, and Hector sets fire to the Greek fleet. Achilles reluctantly allows his dear Patroclus to go forth and withstand the foe. Patroclus after some successes is slain. Love and revenge lead Achilles to end his stern feud with Agamemnon. Aided by the partial gods he puts

the Trojans to flight and slays Hector.

As we have here outlined the plot all this might have occurred in a single day. Such a poem would have been a true Achilleid, in accordance with the opening verse,

Sing, oh goddess, the wrath of Achilles.

But the poem comes to us under the rubric "*Iliad*"—i. e., the story of Ilios or Troy—and there are whole series of books, thousands of verses, through which Achilles is hardly mentioned or remembered. Perhaps the claims of lesser Grecian heroes could not be ignored. Possibly the general voice of patriotism protested that Hector must not triumph too easily. The present third book describes the Trojans' sally, while the firing of the galleys by Hector occurs in the sixteenth. It is the prevailing belief of Homeric students that the intervening books are chiefly additions to the original poem by successive later hands, though these additions were usually created for, and fitted into, the places they now occupy.

Midway in this long, ever-shifting tale of battle stands, in the ninth book, a fine night picture, in which chieftains sent by Agamemnon visit Achilles' cabin and beg him to resume his place in the field. This scene is thought to mark also the cleavage between the two greatest interpolations.

Furthermore, the poem continues after Hector's death in Book XXII. The twenty-third book describes the athletic contests given in Patroclus' honor about his funeral mound. The closing rhapsody (Book XXIV.) makes old Priam to betake himself, under divine guidance, to the foeman's cabin and the foeman's knees. His plea softens Achilles' heart; Hector's body is conveyed back to Troy and buried with all honors. This final scene lifts the whole story, and especially the character of Achilles, to an ethical level remote from the savage battle-scenes of the earlier days. Yet for this very reason, and from certain striking differences in language, the later origin of Book XXIV. is all but universally conceded. Even Andrew Lang, latest and wittiest advocate of Homeric unity, defends his "pious opinion" at this point with a doubting mind.

Some passages, by a decided change of

customs depicted, indicate a still later origin. The shield of Achilles contains pictures of social and civic life more like the Hellas of historic times than of the heroic Achean age. Many believe the whole anecdote of Patroclus' issuing forth in his friend's equipment—which is stripped from his corpse by Hector and replaced with magic armor wrought by Hephestus at Thetis' tearful request—to be a later distortion of the story. The famous catalogue of ships, again, in Book II., gives the place of honor to Bœotia, not to Agamemnon's land, the Argolid; it disagrees with some passages of the *Iliad* proper, and in all probability was not even composed for the *Iliad* originally.

The present writer is a reluctant convert to this theory of several Homers, though incredulous as to the possibility of distinguishing their work in detail. There are even some important passages which gain in beauty and meaning from such a view of the poem. Above all, the parting scene between Hector and his nearest kin in Book VI. has always been regarded as an unrivaled picture of domestic love and heroic sacrifice. But it seems certain that the great master of the human heart who gave it immortal form represented his hero as just setting forth, like a true commander, at the head of his troops, and also as meeting his doom without again returning alive to Troy.

As it now stands in the *Iliad* Hector comes into the city, on this occasion, merely to bring a verbal message which any boy could have taken as well—leaving his men without leadership in a losing fight! Furthermore, as we read on we find Hector returning twice, at nightfall, without accident, to his loving Andromache's arms. For two more nights he encamps in the open plain confident of victory. Not until the fifth day does he fall under Achilles' spear—and more than half the long poem has intervened to make us forget the scene of farewell!

Nevertheless, upon the whole, it is better to put ourselves under the spell of the entire *Iliad* as a noble work of art, just as we pace reverently the long nave of Santa Croce¹ or the aisles of Westminster, with-

out inquiring by how many hands, or in just what succession,

These wonders rose to upper air.

In the one case as in the other, each

Passive master lent his hand

To the vast soul that o'er him planned.

If the work be simple in design, true to human instincts and needs, noble and heroic in spirit, then the certainty of its inspiration is greater than any doubt as to its authorship.

Several poets are mentioned in the *Iliad* and *Odyssey*. All are represented as attached to royal courts. Of free cities like those of later Hellas we get no glimpse, save perhaps on Achilles' shield. Were these poems, then, composed before the downfall of the Achean civilization, of the royal families represented in the epics themselves as ruling in all Greek lands? That is a question still debated.

The great southward migration of the Dorians into the Peloponnesus looms up, against a purely mythical background, as the first great event in authentic Hellenic history. The Greeks set it "two generations after the Trojan War." The folk then expelled from the Peloponnesus are said to have founded the great Greek cities of Asia. Such cities "Homer" nowhere mentions. Asia, so far as it is noticed at all, is on Priam's side in the war. Yet it is chiefly through these same towns that tradition says

The living Homer begged his bread.

Such lists of cities, often called Homer's birthplaces, may represent vaguely the gradual westward progress of poetry and culture, from Smyrna and Chios to Athens. In Asia Minor the Homeric poems probably took their final shape, though the Thesalian home of Achilles and similar indications point out the starting-point of the myth, at least, in "the old country."

The more general impression of scholars is that the *Iliad* was composed *after* the rise of Greek communities in Asia, and that the tale of the Trojan War itself is, in part, a glorified memory of the real struggle between Greek settlers and

Asiatic aborigines. The excavations of Dr. Schliemann and, far more still, the later work of Dr. Dörpfeld, prove beyond question that a great prehistoric city (indeed a long succession of cities) occupied the mound of Hissarlik in the center of the Trojan plain. Any dim tradition of a real Priam or Helen, however, hampered the inventive Homeric fancy as little as a real Arthur and Elaine bound the last great laureate to historic truth. "Only a rumor we hear," so Homer himself assures us.

II.

It has seemed best to touch upon the various Homeric questions before leaving the *Iliad* because very few now contend that the two great epics are from the same hand or of precisely the same age. In fact the *Odyssey* is but the sole survivor of a whole circle of poems which grew up under the influence of the *Iliad* in subsequent times, and attached themselves more or less closely to its masterly story. The "*Cypria*"² related the events previous to Achilles' fatal quarrel. Several rival "sequels" carried the tale down to the destruction of Troy, which, like Achilles' premature death, is often foreshadowed in the *Iliad* itself. The "*Nostoi*"³ told of the homeward return and the more or less happy fate of the surviving Greek chieftains. Whether the crafty Odysseus' wanderings were included therein is doubtful. Probably not, for the *Odyssey* was apparently older than these other "cyclic epics"—which are all lost, save a few fragments and a prose abstract of their plots.

The *Odyssey* is several thousand lines shorter than the *Iliad*, but in some respects less unified in outward form. It contains three more or less independent stories: Telemachus' search for his long-missed father (Books I.—IV.), Odysseus' adventures after his departure from Troy until his arrival in Ithaca (Books V.—XII), the devious combination of craft and force by which he slew Penelope's insolent suitors and regained his wife with his island scepter once more (Books XIII.—XXIV.). Still, the attempts to dissect the *Odyssey*

have met with little popular favor. Artistically, at least, the general voice is right. This is the story of Odysseus, and his personality gives an adequate unity to the whole. Painfully missed and constantly mentioned in the earlier books, he dominates the stage from the moment he appears, and is indeed more typical of man himself, more familiar and dear to general humanity, than any merely historical and real person could ever be. The first verse assures us that we have a story with a hero:

Sing to me, muse, of the man of the many devices,
who wandered

Widely, when he had taken the well-walled Ilian
city.

In the *Iliad* we hear nothing of Odysseus' famous stratagem, the wooden horse by which the city is to be taken. Indeed we hear comparatively little there of Odysseus himself. Still, his character and those of the other heroes were carefully reproduced in the younger epics. The most striking change is in the character of Helen, and the present essayist is unable to believe that the poet who shaped the *Iliad*, or even the later bard of the twenty-fourth book—where Helen sheds despairing tears over Hector, her only friend—could have approved her reappearance, queenly, prosperous, serene, unrepined, at Menelaus' court. This is the gravest ethical fault in all Homer. Literature ever since has been disposed to allegorize her, either as the incarnation of fatal strife or as the immaterial spirit of beauty itself, floating undisturbed and undefiled over the waves of war. This is indeed the peculiar importance of the Homeric epic, that it has created deathless figures, types if you will, that reappear again and again in all the fair endless tapestries of poesy down to the present moment.

There are some curious parallelisms between the *Iliad* and *Odyssey*. For instance, as the *Iliad* begins in the tenth year of the siege, the younger poem opens in the tenth year of the hero's wanderings. But the earlier events are fully reviewed later by Odysseus himself. This device of letting the leading character narrate his own

deeds has been followed by Virgil and by many others.

The great change from the *Iliad* is the widening of the scene. Perhaps the marine adventurousness of the race had made great strides between the two poets' days. Many parts of the Mediterranean first come clearly into view in the *Odyssey*; the "river Ægyptus" is our first glimpse of the Nile, and some remoter marvels seem even like reminiscences of the floating icebergs and long summer days of our northern seas. Many a tale of folk-lore, indeed, is found here, attached to the myth of the returning husband, which can hardly be original with the Greek race at all. For instance, it has been pointed out that the Cyclops story is known in many lands, from Hibernia to Tartary; and as Odysseus here shows less foresight even than his own men the adventure hardly belongs to the crafty Ithacan.

The visit to the world of the dead (*Odyssey*, Book XI.) is a bolder poetic venture than anything in the *Iliad*. The young princess Nausicaa, again, (*Odyssey*, Book VI.) comes closer to our hearts than even the wifely Andromache. Altogether, the *Odyssey* leaves us happier, better contented with life, than when we stood at Hector's bier. Moreover, the love of home (a chord especially dear to Anglo-Saxon folk, even of our own migratory clans) vibrates throughout this delightful epic. Upon the whole, it may well challenge rivalry as the best of all good stories.

As we dismiss the subject, however, we are conscious that the *Iliad* and *Odyssey* once more blend together into a lovely ideal whole, an eternal picture of human life, which combines reality, tradition, poetic belief, and conscious creative imagination in a way that defies all analysis. Even to the fifth century Greeks its charm lay largely in its remoteness from the life they knew. Achilles was almost as far away from Sophocles as Arthur was from Tennyson. Each race imagined its hero dwelling in some far peaceful occidental isle, healed of the bitter wounds earthly life had dealt him.

All other Greek literature is comparatively modern. Herodotus, to be sure, couples Hesiod with Homer, and even names him first; but the Ascrean farmer was hardly remoter from Plutarch, for instance, than his own grandfather in the same Bæotian dales. So too the Homeric hymns, even the oldest, *e. g.*, the one to Delian Apollo, had little of the real Homeric spirit. Especially is this true of the too self-conscious singer who bids the Delian maids assure all inquirers that their favorite bard is

The blind old man of Chios' rocky isle.

This too evident allusion to himself is as little like the reticence of the epic as the merry Delian folk—clearly a free Hellenic people—resembles the submissive populace of a Homeric kingdom. It is mentioned here as illustrating our hopeless ignorance concerning the actual poets of the Iliad and Odyssey; for this same "Homeric"

hymn is the source of two "fundamental facts" about Homer: that he was a Chian, and was blind.

The latter fancy, certainly, will be accepted by no one who ever gazed from Zeus' seat on many-fountained Ida, across the Trojan plain, to Poseidon's noble outlook on the peak of Samothrace. There are numberless details in the Iliad, especially, which prove positively the poet's familiarity with the Hellespontine landscape. We have no doubt numberless details were no less faithfully copied from contemporary life, though we can never separate them with certainty from the purely imaginary incidents; but we firmly believe that he is happiest, and wisest, who accepts the *whole* Homeric tale as true—true to the elemental instincts and motives of living men and women, true to many of our loftiest aspirations, true, above all, to our God-given craving for ideal beauty.

THE STORY OF THE ILIAD.

BY WILLIAM HYDE APPLETON, A.M., LL.B., PH.D.

PROFESSOR OF GREEK IN SWARTHMORE COLLEGE.

THE Iliad is not, as might appear from its name, the complete story of Ilium or Troy; that is, it does not tell us the entire story of the Trojan War. It narrates but an episode occurring in the tenth year of the long struggle, and at the close of the poem Troy has not yet fallen. Still the poet has succeeded in giving us scenes which might be called representative, such as might have occurred at any time during the war, so that we may form a good idea of its general character. Moreover he has made us as well acquainted with its great heroes—Achilles, Ulysses, Hector, and the rest—as if we had followed them during all the years supposed to have elapsed since its beginning.

What, now, is the particular story of the Iliad? The poet tells us that it is the "wrath of Achilles" and its dire results. These are the opening lines of the poem, as given in Pope's sonorous verse:

Achilles' wrath, to Greece the direful spring
Of woes unnumbered, heavenly goddess, sing!
That wrath which hurled to Pluto's gloomy reign
The souls of mighty chiefs untimely slain;
Whose limbs, unburied on the naked shore,
Devouring dogs and hungry vultures tore;
Since great Achilles and Atreides strove,
Such was the sovereign doom, and such the will of
Jove.

What it was that caused the "wrath of Achilles" has been narrated in the preceding article, while its dire results are seen unfolding through the entire poem.

Achilles in his wrath at the outrage done to him by Agamemnon vows that he will return no more to the field until he have satisfaction, and bids the Greeks now see how they will fare without his presence in the battle.

And now begins the narrative of the "woes unnumbered" brought upon the Greeks as a consequence of the "wrath of Achilles." From the third book to the

twenty-third we have the account of four great battles. During three of them Achilles remains inactive in his tent and the Greeks are brought to the verge of ruin. But in the third battle his bosom friend, Patroclus, is slain. Then follows the terrific fourth battle, when Achilles, forgetting all else in his anguish for the loss of Patroclus, has returned once more to the field, where he ranges like the very demon of destruction until he has slain Hector and avenged the death of his friend.

This long story of almost continuous fighting has been saved from monotony by the amazing art of the poet, who has elaborated and embellished the narrative with a marvelous variety of incident and episode, with scenes of tenderness and terror, and with passages of high-wrought beauty and power.

The account of the first battle extends through five books. The anger of Apollo having been appeased we find Agamemnon, in Book II., preparing again to lead his troops to the field. Many are the striking pictures that Homer now gives us.

Among them is the parting of Hector and Andromache—none in Homer more pathetic and more human. Andromache breaks forth in bitterness of soul in just those words that a wife and mother might use who had already been bereaved as she has been. She reminds Hector that her father and her seven brave brothers have already fallen at the hands of the merciless Achilles and that her mother has died of a broken heart: then says to him:

Yet, while my Hector still survives I see
My father, mother, brethren, all in thee.
Alas! my parents, brothers, kindred, all
Once more will perish, if my Hector fall.

In the eighth book is given the account of the second great battle. Everything now goes against the Greeks. Their bravest warriors give way—Idomeneus, Ajax, Agamemnon, Ulysses. They are driven back to their stockade fortification and nothing but the coming on of night saves them from destruction. The victorious Trojans remain in the field and kindle numerous watch-fires, fearing that the Greeks may

actually embark for home and so escape their doom under cover of the darkness. The book closes with a magnificent picture of the night scene presented by the Trojan camp-fires, which has been beautifully translated by Tennyson.

Meantime, while all is exultation throughout the Trojan lines, the Greeks are plunged in the depths of despair. Agamemnon calls a council and it is decided, in their extremity, to send an embassy to Achilles this very night, if perchance they may propitiate him and prevail upon him to return to the field. The embassy returns to the Greeks after a fruitless mission, and they must now, a third time, enter the battle without the presence of Achilles.

This third battle is treated at great length through seven books. It is impossible now to describe it in all its details, through the maze of its splendid story. Remember it is a single day's battle from the eleventh book to the middle of the eighteenth. Its great features are the three successive advances of the Trojans, past the trench and wall of the Greeks, to the ships. Three times are the Greeks on the brink of destruction, and three times do they repel their foes—saved first by Poseidon, then by Patroclus, and finally by the sudden appearance of Achilles at the trench.

Bearing in mind this analysis let us now look at some of the scenes in what we may call the three acts of this amazing drama of conflict. The battle begins as I have said in the eleventh book, following directly upon the previous narrative. The embassy to Achilles, as told in the wonderful ninth book, has failed and the Greeks gird themselves anew for the contest. Agamemnon is the hero in the first part of the battle but is soon wounded and forced to retire. And now comes the hour for Hector and the Trojans to prevail. They have forced the Greeks to the trenches, and to the wall which they had built as a last defense to protect their ships, in case ever the enemy should advance so far. They even make a breach in the wall and soon Hector and the Trojans dash through and the conflict is raging at the very ships of the Greeks.

And now we are in the thick of a terrible battle. No single extract can give an idea of the scene. One must read at a sitting the thirteenth book from beginning to end—if not in the original, then as it is given us by some mighty master of translation like Pope—and be tossed upon the waves of the conflict as it fluctuates back and forth, to feel its tremendous power. At the opening of the book we find Poseidon, the mighty earth-shaker, seated high on the topmost crest of a hill from which all the plain of Troy can be seen, gazing upon the battle. His pity is moved for the Greeks. He mounts his chariot and hastens to their assistance. Meantime the great leaders of the Greeks, Agamemnon, Diomed, and Ulysses, who have been wounded in the early part of the battle return to the field under the stress of the situation. Poseidon himself leads them on. The mighty Hector is laid low by Ajax and carried by his own men from the field. The Greeks seize their opportunity and soon the whole Trojan host is in retreat—back from the ships and past the wall into the plain from which they advanced at the beginning of the fight. And so closes what we may call the first act of this great drama of battle.

But Zeus, the supreme ruler of gods and men, now interferes, mindful of a promise that he has made to Thetis, the mother of Achilles, that he would give success to the Trojans. He now sends orders to Poseidon to retire from the field and bids Apollo, who is always the friend of the Trojans, go to their relief and restore Hector to his vigor. This is done. Hector returns in all his might, Phœbus Apollo leading the way before him, wrapt in cloud and holding before him his shield, gleaming and dreadful. The Trojans pour along over the plain with dreadful din. They reach the trench and wall of the Greeks. There, says Homer, Apollo lightly dashes down before them the banks of the ditch and casts them into the midst thereof—making a bridgeway for the Trojans to pass over. He casts down the wall of the Achæans as a little wanton boy scatters his petty sand structures on the seashore. And now the battle is raging a sec-

ond time at the very ships, and Hector is already calling the Trojans to bring fire to burn the Grecian fleet.

Meantime Patroclus, who up to this time has held aloof from the conflict, keeping company with Achilles, sees from his camp the imminent peril of his countrymen and implores his friend to lend him his armor and his troops, the famous Myrmidons, that he may, if possible, save all from the impending overthrow. Achilles at length yields, and Patroclus joins the Greeks. The Trojans think they see Achilles himself and flee in wild confusion, Hector among them. Here you should read Pope's magnificent translation.

Meantime Patroclus, in the heat of the contest, forgetting the instructions given him by Achilles not to go too far, pursues the flying Trojans to the very walls of the city, where it is his fate to fall by the hand of Hector. And so we have the Greeks saved a second time, but it is at the cost of the life of Patroclus, the beloved companion of Achilles.

And now comes the third advance of the Trojans, who after the death of Patroclus have recovered their valor. The Greeks think only of retreat, in order that they may save the body of their fallen chief. The Trojans press them hard, and a terrific conflict arises over the body. Menelaus has been the first to come to the rescue, but the Trojans, with Hector at their head, drive him back. For a few brief moments the body is left unprotected. Hector succeeds in stripping off its armor and is about to drag it away when lo! Menelaus returns with the terrible Ajax. Slowly the Greeks, ever retreating, work their way toward their ships—Ajax and his warriors, with locked shields, confronting the foe, while under their guard Menelaus and the others are dragging off the body of Patroclus. But the peril is still great, and Hector and the Trojans are well-nigh winning the wished-for prey when Hera, queen of heaven, sends her messenger Iris to warn Achilles to lend succor to the Greeks if he would save the body of his friend. Achilles has already heard of the death of Patroclus, but he has

no armor with which to enter the battle. Then Iris bids him only show himself to the Trojans and it will suffice.

Then, all unarmed, Achilles rushes forth to the trenches, where Greeks and Trojans are fighting. Athena has crowned his head with a divine glory. Its beams shoot aloft like the blazing streamers from some midnight conflagration. He lifts his voice in a terrific shout, clear and ringing as a trumpet call. Three times he cries, and sends dismay into the ranks of the Trojans. The charioteers reel in their chariots at the sight of his blazing form, and hearing that tremendous cry the very horses plunge and rear, then turn and flee affrighted over the plain. The conflict is over and the Greeks recover the body of the fallen Patroclus, and so the long day of battle ends: the Grecian fleet is once more saved, and the Trojans are for the time being defeated and driven back into the plain.

During the night the Trojans hold a council. Dismayed at the sudden appearance of Achilles they fear that on the morrow he may again enter the field. Polydamas advises retreat within their walls—advice which Hector indignantly repels, receiving the applause of the army for his bravery. With Book XIX. opens a new day.

Thetis now comes to her son with splendid armor which at her request Hephaestus has forged for her during the night. She finds Achilles prostrate upon the slain Patroclus, making sore lamentation. Then she takes his hand in hers and seeks to comfort him, while she lays the arms down before him. And as she does so, Homer tells us, they ring in all their bravery. The dread warriors of Achilles, the Myrmidons, shrink back in terror, dazzled at their splendor. But Achilles gazes upon them in delight, and his eyes blaze with fury as he anticipates the battle. Then he goes down the sea beach calling together the Grecian warriors to an assembly. There, before the assembly, he becomes reconciled to Agamemnon, and the armies are marshaled for the fourth great battle. In the midst is Achilles towering above them all—his

limbs clothed in the armor forged on the eternal anvils of the god. His eyeballs fairly blaze with fury in his eagerness for the fight.

Achilles now mounts the car beside his charioteer and cries aloud to his steeds, Xanthus and Balios, the two coursers of immortal strain: "Xanthus and Balios, bring back this time your master with more care than before and leave him not as you left Patroclus to die on the field." Then lo! for a wonder Xanthus, the horse, makes answer to him, being endowed for a moment with a mortal voice. "Achilles," he says, "verily to-day will we bear thee safely; yet still the hour of thy death draweth nigh. Nor are we the cause, but mighty fate. Nor was it our failing that brought the death of Patroclus. And were we swift as the winds in flight yet is it appointed unto thee to be slain." Then stays the voice of the horse. And Achilles says, "I know myself that it is appointed to me to die here. Yet I will refrain not from the fight until I give the Trojans their fill of war." Then with a loud cry he rushes forth to the field.

In Book XX. the battle begins. The gods themselves take part in the contest, and terrible is the scene when the Olympians come down.

We cannot now follow in detail the terrific scenes of the fourth great battle. Achilles is seeking everywhere for Hector, but before he meets him many a lesser victim falls as partial expiation to the spirit of Patroclus. The very rivers, Scamander and Simois, that flow through the Trojan plain rise infuriated, because of the bodies of warriors that impede their streams, and have well-nigh swept away Achilles himself in their wrath. The aged Priam views with horror, from the walls of Troy, the slaughter of his people as they pour along in full retreat toward the town. He cries to the warders to open wide the gates to their panic-stricken countrymen. On come the flying Trojans—all parched with thirst and begrimed with the dust—gasping, panting, fainting, as they labor along the plain until they reach the gates.

No stop, no stay, no thought to ask or tell
 Who 'scaped by flight or who by battle fell:
 'Twas tumult all, and violence of flight,
 And sudden joy, confused and mixed affright.

The fugitive Trojans rush madly in and the gates are closed, Hector only remaining outside, in the stern resolve to confront Achilles. Meantime Priam from the wall cries aloud and beats his head with his hands, raising them on high, and piteously implores his son to enter the city lest he meet his doom from the merciless Greek—the man who hath already bereft him of many valiant sons, slaying them or sending them captive into far-off lands. Hecuba too, the mother of Hector, shrieks forth her prayers in vain. The aged pair are witnesses to the terrible conflict that ensues, and together they behold their son, Troy's last hope, laid low in the dust.

With the death of Hector in the twenty-second book the main action of the poem is at an end. The terrible wrath of Achilles which was announced in the first word of the poem has been told with all its dire results. And here the poem might have closed, but we have two more books.

In the twenty-third book we have an account of the funeral rites of Patroclus and in the twenty-fourth is given the wonderful story of the visit of Priam to the tent of Achilles to ransom the body of his son Hector.

Inspired with confidence by a messenger from Zeus, Priam goes upon a mission which to all his friends seems a piece of the wildest recklessness. He enters the tent of Achilles, where the chieftain sits apart from the rest, with two comrades only—Automedon and Alcimus. Before Achilles is aware of it Priam has entered and clasped his knees and raised to his lips those hands that have slain his son. As Achilles looks upon the old man he thinks of his own father, and is moved to compassion. And now it is that Achilles wins his noblest triumph. How hard a conquest this was we can well appreciate who have followed him through the story of the Iliad. The fierce warrior grants to the father the body of his son for burial; and, further, to the Trojans, a truce of twelve days that they may perform the funeral rites of their slain hero with becoming honor. And so the Iliad ends.

THE STORY OF THE ODYSSEY.

BY PROFESSOR ABBY LEACH, A.M.

OF VASSAR COLLEGE.

AFTER the capture of Troy new perils awaited the Greeks before they could set foot again on their native shores—perils by land and by sea, perils from ruthless barbarians and angry gods, and beyond all the rest, Odysseus

Many a way

Wound with his wisdom to his wished stay.

The Odyssey is the story of his wide wanderings, and the story never loses its charm, for there is variety in plenty in the adventures and variety in the narration, and all is told with a directness and simplicity and beauty that win the heart and captivate the understanding.

Homer, with his dramatic instinct, begins his narrative, not with the fall of Troy but

with a critical moment in the destiny of Odysseus. Calypso, the "fair goddess," is detaining him on her "sea-girt isle,"

and ever, with soft and guileful tales, she is wooing him to forgetfulness of Ithaca. But Odysseus, yearning to see if it were but the smoke leap upward from his own land, hath a desire to die.

The hour for release and return to his native land is near. Athena, the goddess of wisdom, always mindful of the wise Odysseus, takes advantage of the absence of Poseidon, who was "wroth with quenchless anger" against Odysseus, to appeal to Zeus for her favorite, and she appeals not in vain. Calypso, who had loved and cherished him and had said she "would make him to know not death and age forever," yields to

the will of Zeus and sends him on his way.

But he was still to be the "mate of much sorrow." Poseidon stirred up a mighty sea against him.

And as when a great tempestuous wind tosseth a heap of parched husks and scatters them this way and that, even so did the wave scatter the long beams of the raft.

Odysseus fell prone into the sea and was buffeted with fierce waves and winds, but finally, by the help of the gods, he reached land, where he lay half unconscious.

Then we have one of the most charming episodes in all literature. Odysseus has reached the "goodly land of the Phæacians" and meets, no goddess this time, but the fair young daughter of the king Alcinous. And throughout all time the girlish Nausicaa, in her youthful beauty and her native winsomeness, stands as the type of exquisite loveliness and womanly sweetness. Royal princess though she is, after the primitive customs of that time she has gone with her maidens to the riverside to wash the "goodly raiment." For the night before Athena had made her dream that her marriage day was near and she ought to have all in readiness, and so with the morning she sought her father and said:

"Father dear, couldst thou not lend me a high wagon with strong wheels, that I may take the goodly raiment to the river to wash, so much as I have lying soiled? Yea and it is seemly that thou thyself, when thou art with the princes in council, should have fresh raiment to wear. Also there are five dear sons of thine in the hall, two married, but three are lusty bachelors, and these are always eager for new washen garments wherein to go to the dances; for all these things have I taken thought." This she said, because she was ashamed to speak of glad marriage to her father.

He granted her request. When the day was far spent and they had folded the raiment to return home, they played at ball and with their screams wakened Odysseus, asleep near by. He sallied forth from his covert to seek help and came upon the maidens.

But he was terrible in their eyes, being marred with the salt sea foam, and they fled cowering here and there about the jutting spits of shore. And the daughter of Alcinous alone stood firm, for Athena gave her courage of heart and took all trembling from her limbs.

And Odysseus said:

"I supplicate thee, O queen, whether thou art a goddess or a mortal! If indeed thou art a goddess of them that keep the wide heaven, to Artemis, then, the daughter of great Zeus, I mainly liken thee for beauty and stature and shapeliness. But if thou art one of the daughters of men who dwell on earth, thrice blessed are thy father and thy lady mother, and thrice blessed thy brethren; surely their souls ever glow with gladness for thy sake, each time they see thee entering the dance, so fair a flower of maidens. But he is of heart the most blessed beyond all others who shall prevail with gifts of wooing, and lead thee to his home. Never have mine eyes beheld such an one among mortals, neither man nor woman; great awe comes upon me as I look on thee."

And so he entreats for pity and Nausicaa "of the white arms" gives him food and raiment and a "golden flask of liquid oil" for the bath. And when he comes back from the river, "beaming with grace and beauty," Nausicaa guides him to the town. But at the entrance to the city she bids him wait and come later to her father's palace, for fear that some of the baser folk may speak ill of her, if they see her with Odysseus, and say:

"What tall and handsome stranger is following Nausicaa? Where did she find him? A husband he will be, her very own. Some castaway, perhaps, she rescued from his vessel, some foreigner; for we have no neighbors here. Or at her prayer some long-entreated god has come straight down from heaven and he will keep her his forever.' So they will talk, and for me it would prove a scandal. I should myself censure a girl who acted so, who, heedless of friends, while father and mother were alive, mingled with men before her public wedding."

Odysseus respects her scruples and finds his way alone to the lordly palace, where he meets with ready welcome and the promise of a swift ship to bear him homeward. Only once more does he see Nausicaa. As he passes through the hall to the banquet she leans against the pillar of the roof and gazes upon him, saying:

"Hail, guest, and be thou mindful of me when perchance thou art in thine own land again; for to me the first thou dost owe the price of life."

Odysseus promises to honor her "all his days forevermore," and then he takes his seat by Alcinous at the feast and charms all the company with the story of his grievous

woes. He tells of his visit to the "land of lotus-eaters, men who make food of flowers," and how he had to drag some of his men away by force because they had eaten of the "lotus' honeyed fruit" and were "forgetful of their homeward way." Then he tells of his visit to the Cyclopes, a "rude and lawless folk," and says:

"Among this people no assemblies meet; they have no stable laws. They live on the tops of lofty hills, in hollow caves; each gives the law to his own wife and children, and for each other they have little care."

This adventure brings into full play the ready craft and clever devices of the man who was famed for "subtle wit" and "guile insatiate." With twelve of his companions Odysseus, "the over-bold," enters a lofty cave near to the sea to wait for the coming of the giant Polyphemus. He has cause to rue the waiting, for the inhospitable monster forthwith devours two of his followers before his eyes. But the next night Odysseus has made his plans, and when the giant again devours two men he gives him a bowl of priceless wine that he has brought as an offering. Polyphemus in his folly drinks again and again, for "this is a rill of nectar and ambrosia," and asks the name of the stranger. With quick wit Odysseus replies:

"Noman is my name, and Noman they call me, my father and my mother, and all my fellows."

Overpowered by the wine the giant sinks into a deep sleep and then Odysseus plunges a sharpened olive stake into the coals and when it is glowing red he and his companions thrust it into the giant's one eye and whirl it around until the eye is all gone. Maddened with pain, Polyphemus rends the air with his roar as he calls to the Cyclopes to come to his aid. They gather outside the cave and call:

"What hath so distressed thee, Polyphemus, that thou criest thus aloud through the immortal night, and makest us sleepless? Surely no mortal driveth off thy flocks against thy will; surely none slayeth thyself by force or craft?" And the strong Polyphemus spake to them again from out the cave: 'My friends, Noman is slaying me by guile, nor at all by force.' And they answered and spake winged words: 'If then no man is violently handling thee in thy solitude it can in no wise be that

thou shouldst escape the sickness sent by mighty Zeus. Nay, pray thou to thy father, the lord Poseidon.' On this wise they spake and departed; and my heart within me laughed to see how my name and cunning counsel had beguiled them."

Then he had to devise a plan to escape from the cave with his companions, for they could not move the huge rock that barred the entrance, so he lashed three rams together, "thick of fleece, great and goodly," and beneath the middle one he tied a man, and for himself he laid hold of the best ram of the flock, and as he relates,

"Curled beneath his shaggy belly there I lay, and so clung face upward, grasping the wondrous fleece with steadfast heart."

Then when the rams went out to pasture, "their lord, sore-stricken with pain, felt along the backs of all the sheep as they stood up before him, and guessed not in his folly how that my men were bound beneath the breasts of his thick-fleeced flocks. Last of all came forth the ram, cumbered with his wool and the weight of me and of my cunning."

Polyphemus wondered that this favorite ram of his lagged behind, but he did not suspect the trick and so they made their escape to the ship. Then they went to the magic court of Circe, the "fair-tressed goddess," who sang in a sweet voice "as she fared to and fro before the great web imperishable," but with enchantment and evil drugs turned men into swine while proffering them gracious hospitality. It required the intervention of a god to save even Odysseus from the charms of this malicious maid. Hermes gave him an antidote so that no drugs or spells could bewitch him, and when Circe found him proof against her arts she became his friend and restored his companions to their human shapes and gave him wise advice for his future course. "And there from day to day we lingered a full year, and banqueted nobly on plenteous meats and delicate wines."

Then Circe sent him to Hades to seek

"Teiresias, the blind soothsayer, whose wits abide steadfast. To him Persephone hath given judgment, even in death, that he alone should have understanding; but the other souls sweep shadow-like around."

And the seer prophesied to him thus, if he could not restrain his men:

"Late shalt thou return in evil plight, with the loss of all thy company, on board the ship of strangers."

There in Hades Odysseus sadly greets old comrades and friends and pityingly hears the story of their luckless doom. He sees too the famous men of old who dared great crimes, now suffering in grievous torment, and the just enjoying the rewards of their well-doing. What they were in life, that they are in death, but mere phantoms, not substance now, and they flit about "like a shadow or a dream."

In sadness of spirit Odysseus resumed his perilous voyage again. His next danger came when he passed by the island of the sirens, whom he describes as creatures

"who bewitch all men. Whoso draws nigh them unwittingly and hears the sound of their voice, never doth he see wife or babes stand by him on his return, nor have they joy at his coming; but the sirens enchant him with their clear song, sitting in the meadow, and all about is a great heap of bones of men, corrupt in death, and round the bones the skin is wasting."

But thanks to Circe's instructions Odysseus put wax in the ears of his companions so that they rowed on unheeding, and he had himself tightly bound hand and foot so that he heard from the lips of the sirens "the voice sweet as the honeycomb," but could not free himself to suffer woe. Then they had to pass through the narrow strait with the seething Charybdis on one side and on the other the rabid Scylla with

"twelve feet all dangling down and six necks exceeding long, and on each a hideous head, and therein three rows of teeth set thick and close, full of black death. Up to her middle is she sunk down in the hollow cave, but forth she holds her head from the dreadful gulf and there she fishes, swooping round the rock for dolphins or sea-dogs or what so greater beast she may anywhere take."

This terrible monster Odysseus passed with the loss of six men, whom she devoured.

"shrieking in her gates, they stretching forth their hands to me in the dread death struggle; and the most pitiful thing was this that mine eyes have seen of all my travail in searching out the paths of the sea."

But it is too long a tale to tell of all the grievous woes that befell Odysseus and how the folly of his men, in disobeying the

warnings of the gods, cost them their lives and brought the "stout-hearted" hero near to death.

"Lo, how men blame the gods! From us, they say, spring troubles. But through their own perversity they meet with sorrow."

The Phæacians, whose ships were "swift as the flight of a bird, or as a thought,"

bore him asleep over the seas and set him down in Ithaca, and gave him splendid gifts, bronze and gold in plenty and woven raiment, much store, such as never would he have won for himself out of Troy; yea, though he had returned unhurt with the share of the spoil that fell to him.

There in Ithaca the constant Penelope has been waiting and longing for her absent lord, nourishing a "sorrow comfortless," but hoping against hope for his return.

"Even as when the daughter of Pandareus, the brown bright nightingale, sings sweet in the first season of the spring, from her place in the thick leafage of the trees, and with many a turn and trill she pours forth her full-voiced music, bewailing her child, dear Itylus, whom on a time she slew with the sword unwitting, even as her song my troubled soul sways too and fro."

Wise is Odysseus and of ready device, and wise, too, is Penelope, and of many wiles. When Odysseus had not returned, after the lapse of many years, and a host of suitors wooed the fair lady, feasting in her palace and wasting her substance while they awaited her decision,

she set up in her halls a mighty web, fine of woof and very wide,

pretending that she must first finish this as a shroud for the hero Laertes, the aged father of Odysseus.

Then in the daytime she would weave the mighty web, and in the night unravel the same.

And so for three years she "beguiled the minds of the Achæans," but in the fourth year one of her women betrayed her and the suitors found her

unraveling the splendid web. Thus she finished it perforce and sore against her will.

Odysseus in the guise of a wretched beggar gains access to the palace, unrecognized on the way save by his hound Argos, once a "marvel of swiftness and strength" but now old and neglected. When he saw Odysseus he

wagged his tail and dropped both his ears, but nearer to his master he had not now the strength to draw. Odysseus looked aside and wiped away a tear,

and upon Argos then and there

came the fate of black death, even in the hour that he beheld Odysseus again, in the twentieth year.

Once in the palace Odysseus secures by craft his mighty bow and quiver of arrows and, with the aid of his princely son Telemachus and his constant helper Athena, he slays the arrogant suitors who have insolently wasted his substance and tried to compass the death of his son, and so at last has his home and friends once more. The faithful Penelope at first gazes upon him in silence and refuses to believe that he is really Odysseus, until, by sure tokens, he "melted the heart within her," and

he wept as he embraced his beloved wife and true. And even as when the sight of land is welcome to swimmers, whose well-wrought ship Poseidon hath smitten on the deep, so welcome to her was the sight of her lord, and her white arms she would never quite let go from his neck.

On the morrow he went to his father's house and found him, who had once had great possessions, now poor and forlorn, working in his vineyard.

Now when the

steadfast goodly Odysseus saw his father wasted with age and in great grief of heart he stood still beneath a tall pear tree and let fall a tear.

But soon he made himself known to his dear father by "manifest tokens" and then the aged Laertes cast his arms about him and Odysseus caught him fainting to his breast.

After all it is these human touches that make us love the poem. And as we read all the wondrous story we say of Homer what another said of Odysseus:

"Beauty crowns thy words and wisdom is within thee; and thy tale, as when a minstrel sings, thou hast told with skill."

And again,

"Whom the gods have taught to sing words of yearning joy to mortals, and they have a ceaseless desire to hear him, so long as he will sing."

THE WOMEN OF HOMER.

BY ANGIE CLARA CHAPIN, M.A.

PROFESSOR OF THE GREEK LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE IN WELLESLEY COLLEGE.

IT is often said that in any age or country the position of women is a fairly accurate gauge of the degree of civilization and refinement attained.

Judged by this standard the state of society revealed to us in the Homeric poems is not so primitive as their remote antiquity would lead us to suppose. The women of the Iliad and Odyssey are, to be sure, mostly of the higher class of society and more favored than their humbler sisters.

They are not the mere dull slaves of man's caprice. On the contrary they are persons of intelligence and high spirit. They enjoy much freedom of speech and action. They do not veil their faces or preserve silence in the presence of their lords. They possess not only personal beauty but charms of mind and heart. In their own households they are dignified and

gentle queens whose word is law. The highest respect is shown them not only by servants but by their husbands, sons, and fathers-in-law, and indeed by all their male relatives.

Nor do they live lives of selfish and stupid idleness, but they are proficient in works of skill and beauty, weaving and embroidery as well as humbler tasks. Moreover they are keenly interested in all that belongs to the welfare of their home and country, and are capable of patriotism and heroism. Both the Argive Helen and the Trojan Andromache go to the tower upon the wall where they may watch the preparations for battle or learn the issue.

The characters of Homer are real men and women; the elemental forces are strong in them—the natural affections, appetites, and passions. But, though real, they are

not realistic. They are idealized types portrayed with poetic truth. It is this perfect truth to human nature which explains the powerful and immortal appeal which Greek life and art and literature make to humanity. It is this inimitable quality which gives to the study of Greek its permanent value as a means of culture.

In studying special characters in the Homeric poems we find that the poet never sets about it to describe a person or to analyze his character and motives. The character is not so much drawn as revealed in action.

So often has the peerless Helen been the theme of song that there is no little difficulty in disentangling the original Helen of the *Iliad* from the tissue of fable which has been woven round her name. Not only must we separate her from the Helen of Æschylus and Euripides, but from such more modern portrayals as the Helen in Tennyson's "Dream of Fair Women" and Andrew Lang's "Helen of Troy."

But even the Helen of Homer presents a problem. Was she false to her husband, Menelaus, and did she harbor a guilty love for Paris; or was she an innocent victim and an unwilling slave of his passion?

That she was looked upon as the cause of the war admits of no doubt, and yet there is but little bitterness toward her expressed by either Greeks or Trojans. Penelope says of her (and women judge a woman severely):

"It was a god prompted her deed of shame. Before she did not cherish in her heart such sin from which began the woe which stretched to us."

If Homer has made her depraved and yet has so clothed her with beauty as to make us admire her, then he has transgressed not only morality but a canon of Greek art.

It is interesting to find so stern a moralist as Gladstone vindicating the character of Helen from this fatal flaw, though by no means claiming that she is perfect or denying that she is weak.

She first appears in *Iliad* III., 121, where Iris, the messenger of the gods, disguised as Laodice, daughter of Priam, goes to the

palace to call her to come and witness the contest between Paris and Menelaus which shall give final decision to the war by awarding her as the prize to the victor. Iris finds her

weaving a great web, purple, of double woof, and on it she wrought many struggles of the horse-taming Trojans and the mail-clad Achæans which they suffered for her sake at the hand of Ares.¹ And the goddess put into her heart sweet longing for her former husband and her city and her parents. And straightway, veiling herself in fair white linen, she hastened from her chamber.

Upon the tower of the Scæan gate² sat a group of Trojan dignitaries around Priam, their king, watching the result of the battle. Thither went Helen.

And when they saw Helen coming to the tower they softly spake to one another winged words: "No reproach is it that Trojans and Achæans for such a woman as this should long suffer hardships: marvelously like to the immortal goddesses is her face."

How could the poet have conveyed a finer impression of her beauty than that these aged men should pay such tribute to it? Still their judgment is not blinded, and they add:

"But, fair as she is, let her depart upon the ships, nor stay to be a bane to us and our children."

Then Priam with kind words called her to his side that she might point out to him the foremost Greek warriors, adding, "I do not deem thee to blame for the war." And Helen answered:

"Would that wretched death had been my lot when I followed thy son hither, leaving my home and friends and maiden daughter. Wherefore I am wasted with weeping."

After the indecisive contest was over Aphrodite bade Helen go to the chamber of Paris. At first she indignantly refused, but Aphrodite threatened her, and Helen followed the dread goddess in silence.

When she came to the chamber where lay the cowardly Paris she sat down beside him and with averted face reproached him:

"Thou hast come from the fight; would thou hadst perished there, conquered by a mighty man who was my former husband."

But all the time a struggle is going on between her nobler nature, which leads her

to despise the craven Paris, and the love with which Aphrodite inspires her; and love finally conquers.

In the sixth book of the *Iliad* Helen again appears. Hector has come within to bid the Trojan women offer a robe to Athena. After enjoining this duty upon his mother, Hecuba, he goes to the palace of Paris, whom he finds toying with his shining armor. In a few sharp words Hector chides Paris. Then Helen, who is sitting among her serving-women directing their work, says to Hector:

"My brother, shameless mischief-maker that I am, would that on the day when first my mother bore me a dread hurricane had driven me away to a mountain or to a wave of the roaring sea, where a billow had swept me away before all this had happened! But, since the gods decreed these ills, would I were the spouse of a braver man, who had a sense of honor and heeded the reproaches of men."

The noble presence of Hector, gentle and chivalrous as well as "the mighty bulwark of Ilium," draws out the noblest in Helen and leads her to condemn herself as no one else condemns her. It is no wonder that when the valiant Hector has fallen the lament of Helen follows upon that of his wife and his mother:

"Hector, far dearest to my heart of all the sons of Priam, verily my husband is the god-like Alexandros, who led me hither (would I had died before!). But never from thee heard I harsh word nor contemptuous; but if any one of thy brothers and sisters or thy mother upbraided me—but thy father was ever kind to me as my own—then thou didst restrain him with kindly heart and kindly words. Wherefore I mourn for thee and for myself as well: for no longer in all wide Troy have I any friend so kind as thou wast."

It is not accidental that Andromache appears so soon after Helen, with whom she is so finely contrasted. In *Iliad* VI., 359, just after Helen's self-reproach, Hector refuses to tarry, and after bidding her rouse the spirit of Paris says:

"I will go to my home to see my household and my dear wife and my little son. For I know not whether I shall come back to them again, or if the gods will now conquer me by the hands of the Achæans."

But when he reached his home "he

found not the white-armed Andromache within the halls." Home-keeping woman as she is, her heart is in the fight beyond the gates. Straight to the battlements she has gone, for she has heard that the Trojans are wasting before the might of the Achæans. The child Astyanax, too, must go with her. To him also belongs the issue of to-day's conflict. Little he reckons of danger, in his nurse's arms, "happy-hearted child," "fair as a star."

Now when Hector learned that she had gone to the tower he hastened back, and as he drew near the gates Andromache ran to meet him.

And Hector smiled and looked upon his son in silence. And Andromache stood weeping by his side and clung to his hand and said: "Ah, my lord, thy daring will be thy death, nor hast thou any pity for thy infant child nor me, so soon to be thy widow. For soon will all the Achæans beset and slay thee. Better were it for me to go down to the grave if I must lose thee. Nay but now stay here upon the tower, lest thou make thy child an orphan and thy wife a widow."

Then answered her great Hector of the gleaming helm: "I too have thought of all this, my wife. But I feel a sense of shame toward the Trojans and the Trojan women if like a coward I shrink from battle. My spirit forbids me, for I learned ever to be brave and fight among the foremost, winning my father's glory and my own."

How like is Hector to the knight of Lovelace's old poem:

I could not love thee, dear, so much,
Loved I not honor more.

All the sad forebodings of Andromache came true, and Hector, knightliest of all the heroes of the *Iliad*, was slain by Achilles and his body ignominiously dragged in the dust. After it had been ransomed and brought home to Troy, the women, as was their custom, gathered about to chant their dirges, and Andromache led the sad chorus, holding Hector's head in her arms:

"O my husband, too young hast thou perished and left me a widow in the halls, and our child is but an infant. All the people mourn throughout the town, and on thy parents thou hast brought sorrow, Hector; but for me most of all will naught but grievous woe remain. For thou didst not stretch out thy hands to me in dying, nor speak to me one word which I might ever think on night and day with tears."

It is thus that Andromache holds a place in our hearts which Helen, with all her charms, could never fill.

The very name of Penelope is a synonym for loyal devotion and steadfast patience. Homer's favorite epithets for her are the "careful," or "heedful," and the "steadfast." The first seems to describe a broad-minded woman who can think all around a subject, and the other a person of good sense and tenacity to principle.

She has the gifts of Athena, "skill in beautiful works, noble thoughts, and shrewdness such as none of the old-time Achean women was reputed to possess." Yet she is not the type of the coldly intellectual and scheming woman. It is love that holds the helm, a love that keeps not only her but Odysseus true. To the enchantress Calypso, who kept him seven years in thrall, he says:

"Stately goddess, be not angry with me for this; well do I know that the wise Penelope is inferior to thee in height and beauty; for she is mortal, but thou hast immortal youth. Yet, even so, I long every day to go home."

Penelope is so bound up with the life of the palace at Ithaca that it is difficult to select detached passages which will give an adequate idea of her. One characteristic scene is in *Odyssey* I., 325-344. Among the suitors an illustrious bard was singing the sad story of the return of the Achæans from Troy.

Now from her upper chamber the heedful Penelope heard the inspired song, and she came down the long stairway from her room, not alone, for two attendants followed her. And when she came to the suitors she stood beside a pillar holding before her face her delicate veil. Then, bursting into tears, she spoke to the inspired bard: "Phemios, many other songs thou knowest to charm mortals, deeds of men and gods, such as bards celebrate; sing them one of these, and let them in silence sip their wine; but cease from this sad strain which evermore harrows my very heart, remembering ever the husband whose glory is great throughout Hellas."

After Odysseus had returned to Ithaca disguised by the changes of twenty years he revealed himself first to his son Telemachus. Then the old dog Argos knew

his master and fell dead at his feet for joy. And when Penelope heard of the much-traveled stranger she sent for him to come and tell his wanderings to her, hoping to hear some tidings of her husband. She listened with tears and could have listened all night, especially as he told her that Odysseus was on his way and would reach home soon.

At length when the mighty bow of Odysseus had been successfully strung by the stranger, and the lawless suitors had been slain, Odysseus sent the faithful Eurycleia to call Penelope. And the old nurse's knees grew strong and her joyful feet outran themselves. With a glad cry she awoke Penelope and told her that the long-hoped-for Odysseus was come at last. But Penelope thinks her crazed; and Eurycleia insists that Telemachus has known that the stranger was his father, and that Odysseus has sent for her. And as a final proof she tells her of the scar which she herself discovered when she bathed his feet.

Then the cautious Penelope went down from her chamber, her heart trembling between hope and fear.

A younger, more impulsive woman would not have been so slow of heart, and yet some natures shrink instinctively from a great joy as well as from a great sorrow. Long she sat in silence, and Odysseus sat looking down, waiting for her to speak. Telemachus can bear it no longer and reproaches his mother for hard-heartedness. But she answered him:

"My child, my heart within my breast is dazed, nor can I speak a word to him, nor ask him any question, nor look him in the face. If he really is Odysseus and has come home, then we two shall know each other better than others, for we have signs known to ourselves but hidden from others."

Odysseus at first is patient with her but finally she angers him, and at the mention of his bed he describes all the details of the curiously wrought bed which he himself had built. Not till then is the last trace of suspicion dispelled from the mind of Penelope, and "bursting into tears she ran straight toward him, threw her arms about his neck and kissed his face."

Each had much to tell; she, what trials she had endured at home, and he, his wanderings by land and sea. "No sleep fell on her eyelids till he had told her all."

To Nausicaa Wordsworth's lines might well apply:

She was a phantom of delight
When first she gleamed upon my sight.
Her household motions light and free,
And steps of virgin liberty;
A countenance in which did meet
Sweet records, promises as sweet.

There is no more exquisite picture in all literature of a flower-like maiden, not even "the lily-maid of Astolat," than this fresh and artless young princess of the wonder-land of Phæacia. To come upon her after Calypso is, as Symonds says, "like coming from a land of dreams into a dewy garden when the sun has just risen."

Yet nothing could be more simple and homely than the poet's picture of her, dreaming at night of her coming marriage for which she must make ready; coaxing her father in the morning for the mules and wagon to carry her linen to the river-bank; merrily vying with her serving-maids in treading the linen in the washing-pits, then

leading in a game of ball while waiting for the clothes to dry.

When the travel-stained stranger Odysseus came suddenly out of the thicket she met him with fearless dignity, and rallied her maidens, who fled in fright at the sight of a naked, shipwrecked man.

Odysseus is filled with admiration at the sight of her. She reminds him of nothing so much as a fresh young shoot of a graceful palm-tree which he once saw at Delos beside Apollo's altar, or he would liken her to the virgin goddess Artemis³ in beauty and stature and bearing.

She in turn admires the hero, after he has refreshed himself with a bath and she has given him food and clothing. She frankly expresses to her companions the wish that she had such a suitor. She bids him follow her, but at a little distance, lest loungers criticize.

So she brings him proudly home, where he is royally entertained by Alcinous and Arete, and finally sent in safety home to Ithaca.

"Farewell, stranger," said Nausicaa. "Remember me sometimes when thou art come to thy native land."

THE HOMERIC AGE.

BY MARTIN L. D'OOGE, LL.D.

PROFESSOR OF THE GREEK LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE IN THE UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN.

NO other literature presents so attractive a picture of prehistoric times as is portrayed in the *Iliad* and *Odyssey* of Homer. How much of it is fact and how much fancy, and what relation the representation bears to those who portrayed it we must briefly consider at the outset. Granting that Homer—to use the traditional name for the authorship of these poems—looked at everything "through the sweet haze of a joyous imagination," as all poets do, yet is there a substratum of fact and actuality in the life and events so vividly depicted in these poems; or shall we say with a modern historian that "the whole story fades at the least touch of criticism"?

After due consideration of all the arguments, which we cannot now stop to discuss, we are inclined to believe that the Homeric poems present an idealized picture of an early age in Greek history, and that there was enough reality in it for the generation that listened to these songs and stories to make it seem to them akin to their own life in thought and feeling and experience. That the Homeric poet knew this life only through tradition and describes an earlier but more brilliant period of Eolic-Ionic civilization is now more commonly held.

The true character of this civilization that antedates the composition of the Homeric poems has been brought to clearer

light by the excavations of Dr. Schliemann on the site of what is believed to be ancient Ilium and at Mycenæ. Neither the cup of Nestor nor the sword of Priam nor the jewels of Helen have been found, but the objects of art and handicraft brought to view by the spade at Mycenæ and Hissarlik make it more easy to believe that the Homeric picture of the adornments and luxuries of the palaces of Menelaus and Alcinous had a background of actuality.

Within broad lines the Homeric Age may be compared with the feudal period of medieval history. In both we find the same love of adventure, the same spirit of gallantry and martial prowess, an equal disregard of the common man and of the value of human life, a high sense of personal honor, a proneness to violent outbursts of passion coupled with a certain tenderness toward the suffering, and a deep reverence for what is superhuman which manifests itself in superstitious beliefs and practises. In both we meet with scenes of festivity in courtly circles of brave men and gentle women, with wandering bands of minstrels singing their lays before nobles at splendid banquets, and hostile raids and forays led by doughty chiefs against their foes.

From Homer the Greeks got their ideas of religion, law, government, and ethics, and in the Homeric heroes they saw the ideals and prototypes of their own life. What these ideas and ideals were it is now time to enquire more definitely. Let us turn first of all to the idea of the state as represented in Homer.

In an important sense it is true that Homer inspired the Greeks with a feeling of nationality. While care is evidently taken to gratify occasionally the pride of some locality in some provincial hero (though the passages in which this is done are for the very fact under consideration suspected of being later additions or interpolations), yet throughout the entire poems the Hellenic feeling asserts itself. This is seen not only in the choice of such names as Achæans and Danai, but in the identity of feeling and similarity of ideas that make, for example, the Ætolian Diomed the com-

patriot of the Æginetan Ajax and the island chieftain Odysseus a representative of the whole people.

The poems represent a polity that is substantially common to all the Greek people. The government of every political center is vested in a king who rules by virtue of his descent from some hero or divinity, hence is called *Diotrephe*s, "Zeus-nurtured," and also by grace of personal presence and deeds of valor. A mean or cowardly prince is rarely found.

Associated with the king is his Council of Elders, or Princes, who form the prototype of the historical *Boule*, or Senate. In Book II. of the *Iliad* this body prepares for the meeting of the Assembly; in Book IV. they act as a committee of reference and send envoys to supplicate Achilles; and in Book VII. they plan the truce and the rampart.

In this connection it is interesting to notice how much weight is given to the power of speech. The signal and varied excellence of the Homeric speeches, says Mr. Gladstone, is a proof of the presence of the spirit and practise of freedom among the Greeks. The function of the *Agora*, or popular assembly, is not clear. It seems to have been little more than a means of promulgating measures already passed by the council. The privilege of public speaking was apparently limited to the nobles.

There were no courts of judicature, and Homer has no word for law. The king is entrusted not only with the scepter but also with the *themistes*, which are ordinances established by custom and precedent. Bad rulers are described as those who give "crooked judgments." There is no evidence that written contracts were made, but a verbal agreement was often ratified by an oath. Since so much depended on keeping vows and on oral testimony, perjury was looked upon as one of the worst of crimes. "Hateful to me as the gates of Hades," says Achilles, "is the man who hides one thing in his heart and speaks another with his lips."

The Homeric Age was a warlike one, but was by no means an age of lawlessness and

violence. With the exception of the wounds inflicted on the dead body of Hector there is no instance of simple cruelty and vindictive passion. The feeling of reverence restrains the victorious Achilles from despoiling the corpse of his fallen foe. Amid all the clash of arms and the outbursts of temper the Homeric Greeks still impress us as a gentle and generous people. Says Professor Jebb: "Their sense of decency and propriety is remarkably fine. The Homeric man already exhibits the clear-cut Greek type of humanity; he has its essential qualities, mental and moral. But all his surroundings bespeak an age of transition. Crude contrasts abound. Luxuries and splendors of an eastern east are mingled with elements of squalid barbarism. Manners of the noblest chivalry and the truest refinement are strangely crossed by traits of coarseness and ferocity."

The Homeric man is liable to savage outbursts of passion. Patroclus in his youth slew the son of Amphiaraus¹ in anger over a game of knucklebones. And Achilles, the embodiment of chivalry, feared lest the wild beast within him should leap forth and he should slay Priam. As might be expected in a warlike and unsettled state of society, the taking of human life in violent temper was one of the commonest of crimes. To have killed a man was considered a misfortune. Its penalty was banishment, unless the relatives were willing, as they seem usually to have been, to take a sum of money as an atonement.

The rights of property on land were respected as between members of the same community and friendly tribes. But the sea had no master and there might was right. Nestor speaks of the hardships on shipboard on the misty sea, while coasting for plunder where Achilles led. The probability is, however, that piracy was not practised between the citizens of friendly and allied states.

Slavery is another blot upon the fair picture of the Homeric Age. In Homer, however, slavery appears in its least repulsive and cruel form, the slaves being employed as domestics in the house and as

tillers of the soil, and being regarded as members of the household. In the *Odyssey* we find several examples of devoted attachment between masters and slaves, and Eurycleia, the aged nurse of Odysseus, occupies an honorable position in the household.

Besides slaves there were free hired laborers, *thetes* they were called, who for wages or share of products worked the land and performed various kinds of manual labor. Work and handicraft were not despised, however, as in later times. Paris was never so well employed as when he lent a hand to the building of his own palace, and even Odysseus makes his own bedstead. Of all occupations trade and commerce were held in least honor and were pursued by foreigners, chiefly Phenicians. Gold and silver were sparingly used as a medium of exchange. The common measure of value was the ox. The captive Lycaon fetches for Achilles a hundred oxen, and Laertes buys Eurycleia for twenty. Intercommunication with distant ports was difficult and long voyages were rare.

One of the prominent traits of Greek character, one of those things that made the Greek a true Greek not then alone but always, is the respect paid to strangers and suppliants. Nausicaa tells her timid maids, who are disposed to run away from Odysseus and leave him to his fate: "This poor man has lost his way and we should give him aid; for in the charge of Zeus all strangers and beggars stand." The unknown stranger is freely welcomed to the hospitality of the chieftain's hall, and not until after he has "dismissed the desire for eating and drinking" is he asked whence he comes and who he is. This hospitality was most bountifully exercised by the kings and nobles, whose tables apparently were frequented by numerous guests.

Perhaps no single feature of the life of the Homeric Greeks was so remarkable, and so characteristic, in distinction from that of the Trojans and barbarians, as their family life. There is no trace of polygamy among the Greeks, and concubinage belongs to the rough life of the military camp

and is not common even there. The deference paid to Penelope by the suitors and her noble bearing are apparently a theme of admiration by the poet, and must have been treated in conformity with the actual Greek idea of the sanctity of marriage. There is no instance recorded of a woman who becomes the wife of another man during her husband's lifetime, excepting Helen, whose relations, however, to her rightful husband are not ignored. The Homeric virgin and matron are generally models of propriety. The highest happiness is found in the home; "For better and higher gift," says Odysseus to Nausicaa, "than this there cannot be, that man and wife should with accordant minds possess a home." In comparing the Homeric place of woman with her degraded position in historical Greece we should bear in mind the fact, as Professor Jebb suggests, that the only Homeric women of whom we hear much are the wives and daughters of chiefs and princes who share the position of their husbands and fathers, while the women of whom we hear most from the Attic writers belong to an inferior class. The probability is that the average woman, like the average man, was of little account in the Heroic Age.

That the lords and ladies of this period enjoyed the good things of life and had abundant means of entertainment is manifest from the poems, which represent the heroes as forever feasting and singing when they are not otherwise employed. But excess is rare, and drunkenness is alluded to only with contempt. The "crowns" of the banquets are the lays of the minstrels which are sung to the accompaniment of the lute and the harp.

Games and exhibitions of athletic skill, which became so important and distinctive a feature of the Greek life in the historical period, were popular at even this early time. Odysseus is entertained in Scheria by foot-races, wrestling matches, and throwing of the discus, and the son of the king challenges him to a contest with the words: "There is no greater glory for a man in all his life than what he wins with his own

hands and feet." On the whole the life portrayed in the Homeric poems has a cheerful tone.

The country people lead a quiet and fairly independent life, such as would be found in most agricultural communities far removed from the ambitions of city life. The men in the towns spend their time, when not away on some military or hunting expedition, in the streets and market-places, just like their modern descendants, always telling and hearing some new thing.

That this age was one of war and military adventure every reader of the *Iliad* especially will acknowledge. The profession of the soldier was common to all of noble birth. The king is the leader and commander-in-chief. Vigorous and minute in many ways as are the descriptions of battles, the details of the conduct of a battle are not very definite.

The opposing armies, generally arrayed in ranks and files, remain a spear's throw apart from each other, and arrows, javelins, darts, and stones are hurled from both sides, while only the foremost leaders advance into the intervening space, "the bridge of battle," as Homer calls it. Not infrequently single combats were fought between heroic champions, such as those of Hector and Ajax, Menelaus and Paris, during which the armies were apparently spectators rather than combatants.

Before drawing this rapid sketch of the life of the Homeric Age to a close we must briefly notice one of its most interesting and controlling elements, without which the life of the Greeks at no period of their history can be understood, and that is the presence and power of religion. The heroes of the Trojan cycle were believed to have some direct intercourse with the gods. Zeus, to be sure, is never represented as revealing himself directly, but his ministers, Athena, Apollo and Hermes, form, as it were, a connecting link between the human and the divine world. More commonly, however, the will of the gods is made known by the appearance of signs sent from heaven, or by dreams, or by directions given by the oracles at Dodona² and Delphi. To inter-

pret these omens and dreams a special class of men, the seers, such as Calchas and Teiresias arose, and they attained to some influence. The offering of sacrifice was also attended with omens, and was considered the accepted means of winning and retaining the favor of the divinities.

The libation which was poured at meals as a kind of grace and at night before retiring was an act of religious devotion customarily observed. The feeling of dependence and the sense of reverence—the two corner-stones of religion—were especially strong in the Homeric Greeks. But what is especially noteworthy is the fact that while the Homeric Greeks were polytheists they were not idolaters. The aged priest Chryses goes apart on the shore of the far-resounding sea and prays to great Apollo, and Penelope in her upper chamber addresses her prayer to the child of Ægis-bearing Zeus, both manifestly without having any image of the divinity before which they bow.

How all this religiousness and reverence for divine beings can be made to harmonize with the unworthy and debasing Homeric representations of the gods is not easy to see. There is an obvious inconsistency in the religious conceptions contained in these poems, an inconsistency that can only be explained as due to an attempt to combine in one the traditions handed down from very early times with the nobler creations of great poets. Hence the combination of human and superhuman qualities, the apparent conflict between morals and religion, or what passes for it. Yet in spite of the frailties and immoralities of the Olympian family, and the condemnation passed upon them from Xenophanes³ down to the latest diatribe, it still remains true, as Mr. Gladstone in his "*Juventus Mundi*" has pointed out, that "the Homeric religion presented to the Greeks a system of rewards and punishments intelligible to its votaries and operative to no small extent upon human conduct. It exhibited, generally speaking, though in an imperfect yet in a real manner, superior power armed and active on behalf of truth, justice, and humanity."

That with such a commanding importance as religious rites and worship possessed there never should have arisen among the Greeks a hierarchy of priests and an ecclesiastical system is certainly remarkable. This noteworthy fact finds its explanation in the period we are considering. From the start the king as the representative of the people was the high priest, who himself offered all state sacrifices. The presence of no priest as such was essential to any act of worship. There were priests and they held rank next to the bards, but only as sacristans of a particular shrine or temple.

Hymns, incantations, and the power of securing the favor of a divinity by special rites are not the privilege of a special class in Homer. Upon this point we agree with a recent writer who says: "In Greece from the earliest times the sacerdotal influence is slight. The priest and the diviner are generally lightly accounted in Homer, and the minstrel or singer is held in higher honor. Nor did the priests penetrate private life or teach religion. Not they but the poets became the educators of youth."

Again we are reminded of the prime importance of the poems of Homer to the Greek people and through them to the world. The Homeric picture never faded away from the mind of the Greek race. Achilles the splendid warrior, Odysseus the wise counselor, Penelope the faithful wife, Nausicaa the gracious princely maiden, Hector the brave chieftain, Ajax the sturdy honest fighter, Nestor the delightful old man, and all the other Homeric company cast in heroic mold were the types and ideals of the Hellenic world; they are still beautiful and attractive portraitures of character. The Homeric Age is in one sense a myth—a fanciful creation of the poet's imagination if you will. But beneath and behind it all there is a beautiful reality, and the portrayal of courtliness and valor, of tenderness and fidelity, of honor and reverence found in the *Iliad* and *Odyssey* must ever show that in that far-off time there were men and women who could feel nobly and demean themselves as heroes should.

SUNDAY READINGS.

SELECTED BY BISHOP VINCENT.

THE CONQUERING CHRIST.

AND when they wanted wine the mother of Jesus saith unto him. They have no wine.—*John ii., 3.*

Therefore his sisters sent unto Jesus, saying. Lord, behold, he whom thou lovest is sick.—*John xi., 3.*

[*March 7.*]

THERE can be no greater contrast than that presented by these two scenes. In the one we have the homely merriment of a rustic wedding, in the other the despair of two desolate women's hearts. The mother of Jesus and the sisters of Lazarus stand at opposite poles of feeling. But from the station of each a straight line can be drawn to where Jesus is. Sorrow and joy have an equally open road to him, and find equal sympathy there. The gravity of the respective needs in these two incidents is singularly different. The one is a trifle, the other a crushing weight. But, great or small, transient or lifelong as cares or wants may be, they are best met and conquered and supplied when told to our Lord. Not less noticeable is the identity in manner of the two sayings. The mother of our Lord simply says, "They have no wine," and adds no more. The sisters send only the message, "He whom thou lovest is sick," and proffer no request. That manner of addressing Christ, alike in sorrow and joy, in trivial and in great necessity, with the simple statement of what presses on life or heart, and the suppression of all prescription to him of what he is to do, may suggest some not useless considerations as to the tone and manner which should mark our intercourse with Jesus. Our intercourse with him should be characterized by frank familiarity of communication, such as befits love and friendship.

It was a natural impulse which brought both these utterances to Jesus. His mother was troubled when the scanty stores of her

friends at Cana began to give out, and as she saw the wine-skins becoming more and more flaccid a spirit in her feet carried her to her Son, perhaps before she well knew what she did, or wished him to do. The two sad hearts at Bethany, as they saw the black wing of the angel of death hovering over their home, turned spontaneously to Jesus, and, though they did not know what he could do if he came, still felt that the sorrow would be more easily borne if they knew that he knew it.

Now, that same instinctive prompting to tell dear ones all our thoughts and wishes is an unfailing character of real love. The depth and purity of our human love may be roughly, but with tolerable accuracy, measured by the strength of that impulse. Where reserve is possible love is shallow or coarse.

The love which binds human hearts to one another is not different in kind from that which knits men to Jesus. What our love does in us when it is fixed on one another, that it should do when it is fixed in humble faith on Jesus Christ. Many of its signs and effects will necessarily be different, but in the one case as in the other perfect frankness of communication and delight in yielding to the impulse of laying bare every corner of our hearts, whatever inner baseness may lurk there, will assuredly attend real love.

Now that is a very sharp test of Christian character, and makes short work of much complacent profession. If we really love Christ and feel to him as to a friend, and if we heartily believe that we can speak to him and be heard, we shall not need any one to tell us that it is our duty to pray to him. We should instinctively feel that whatever irritates us or affects us, be it slight as a mosquito's puncture or grave as a whip-adder's sting, must be told to him. He who only invokes Christ's sympathy and

help when there comes a "knot" in his fortunes which he thinks "worthy" of such a hand to unravel will seldom invoke him, and will not usually do it to much purpose. Trifles are the bulk of life, and unless our communion with our Lord extends to trifles it will be poor and partial indeed.

[*March 14.*]

THESE two sayings may further suggest the trustful and submissive suppression of desire which should accompany this frank confidence.

"They have no wine." Did that mean "Give them some"? It can scarcely be supposed that, at that early stage, the Virgin expected her Son to work a miracle, even though she kept all the unforgettable events of the Nativity in her heart. "He whom thou lovest is sick." Did that mean "Come and heal him"? Some faint hope of that sort may have been in the sisters' hearts, as may be inferred from their half-reproachful greeting of Jesus when he came, but it was probably of the vaguest character. If there were such wishes in either case the suppression of them indicates the speaker's absolute trust in Christ's superior wisdom and perfect sympathy, which makes their utterance of their wishes superfluous and presumptuous.

Let us tell Christ our needs and stop there. Surely we are well enough acquainted with his loving purpose to be certain that for him to know is to pity, and to pity is to stretch out a full and strong hand of supply and help. We say that we believe in his divine nature. If we do we must believe that his knowledge needs no informing by us to move his sympathy. Why, then, should we tell him our needs if he knows them already? We have already partly answered that question by pointing to the instinct of love; but, further, we must remember that our communication of our wants is preliminary to his supply of them, not because it informs him but because it prepares us. He does not need to be told, but we need to tell him. That being so, it is the part of faith to spread our needs before Jesus, and to do no more. All need

makes appeal to him, and many forms of it are supplied from his loving hand without other prayer than the dumb, unconscious one of the necessity's existence.

But for higher gifts there must needs be the confidence already spoken of, and where that exists there need not and should not be the prescribing of a course to Jesus. To do that is consonant neither with faith nor with reverence. Humble submission to Christ's better wisdom breathed through his mother's words and the sisters' message. True prayer is not pestering the Throne with passionate entreaties that a certain method of deliverance, which seems best to us, should be forthwith effected, but is a calm utterance of need and a patient, submissive expectance of fitting help, of which we dare not define the manner or the time. True prayer is the bending of our own wills to the divine, not the urging of ours on it.

The less we seek to prescribe to God the truer and more blessed will be our intercourse with him. It is enough to tell him that the wine fails, or that Lazarus is ill. Leave him a free hand to do as he will in supplying deficiencies and healing diseases. A confident assurance of the fact that needs will be met, a blank sheet in our expectation as to how they will be, and a sharpened attention, alert to mark the direction which his help may take, should ever accompany our speech to Christ. The highest prayer is, "Not my will, but thine be done," and the best answer is, "The peace of God shall keep your hearts and minds in Christ Jesus." Only be on the watch for what he may do, and be sure that he will do something, and that the right thing.

[*March 21.*]

THESE two incidents give two ways of taking Christ's delays. Our Lord's treatment of the two appeals is substantially the same. The answer to Mary sounds more repellent in English than in Greek, inasmuch as "woman" has in it a tinge of roughness not conveyed by the original. The question simply suggests independent action and not alienation; but the request was certainly put aside, and its repetition

forbidden. In the remaining clause, "Mine hour is not yet come," a promise, like a sweet kernel, is hidden in the words; for "not yet" warrants and seems to be meant to create expectance that the hour will strike soon, and be heard by his ear. Precisely similar is Christ's action in the other case. "When Jesus heard that he was sick he abode still two days in the same place where he was." There again he delayed till his "hour" had come. That expression, so frequent on our Lord's lips, implies that each act of his was regulated by the conviction, clear to himself, that the time for it, appointed by the Father, had arrived. Whether it were the hour "when the Son of Man should be glorified" by the supreme sacrifice of the cross, or the hour when the peasant wedding should have replenished stores, his ear heard it strike, without the possibility of mistake; and until it was heard, nothing—not even a mother's wistful look or the sad hearts of Bethany—could induce him to act. In proportion as we approach the same perfection of filial obedience we shall be blessed with the same certainty of perception, and may hear, even amid the vulgar, loud noises of life, the solemn tones announcing the hour for great service or small duty. Well for those who have so silenced the ringing in their own ears that they hear beyond mistake God's chimes, and hearing, obey!

The time between Christ's refusal to act on his mother's hint and his acting on it was probably brief; but much may happen in short space, and requisite conditions may have been quickly supplied. God's clock does not go at the same rate as ours, but "a thousand years" may sometimes be crowded into "one" of his days, and one of his days be lengthened to a slow thousand of our years. Two days seemed an eternity to the sisters, and no doubt bewilderingly long to some of the attendant disciples; but, longer or shorter, the delays teach us the truth that Christ's time is determined by considerations which we are little able to appreciate. Whatever holds back his hand is not lack of sympathy with our sorrow, disregard of our confidence, or

unwillingness or inability to respond to our cry. The consideration of what is best for us and others who may be helped by our experience is sovereign with him. All delay is the result of his love, and meant for highest good, not only to the individual most concerned but to others also. "I am glad for your sakes that I was not there, to the intent ye may believe."

The similarity which we have traced in the two superficially so different instances does not extend to the manner in which the two delays were received by the persons interested. These are contrasted rather than parallel, and while the one is an example the other is a warning. Mary's meek faith, though there had been so little hitherto to feed it, drew hope from the seeming rebuff. Apparently she clung to the glimmer of hope in that "not yet," else her charge to the servants has nothing in the narrative to account for it. It was but a slight foothold, but it was enough for her. A heart truly in harmony with Christ will ever hear in his most discouraging words the undertones of promise. "Not yet" may darken to-day, but it insures a bright to-morrow.

The two sisters at Bethany seem to have had natural regrets during the four days between their message and Christ's coming. Apparently, indeed, their brother was already dead when their messenger reached our Lord. But if we may judge from the salutation with which each met him, "If thou hadst been here my brother had not died," they had often wearily looked at one another in their lonely misery and said the same thing. How we may recognize ourselves in them! That same weakening and useless regret that something did not happen which, if it had happened, would have changed everything tortures us all in our sorrows. The sisters did not so much complain as regret. They did not think that Jesus should or might have come, they only thought, How blessed if he had come, or never gone! They had to learn the purpose of his delay and of their sorrow, and when in a few minutes they did learn it how ashamed of their "if" they must have been! The delay to heal was in order to prepare a

mightier blessing, and the sharp sorrow was allowed in order that its wounds might be filled with fragrant balm, which only a wounded heart could receive.

So it ever is with the experience of those who wait his time, nor let their faith droop, nor doubt that his absence and their sorrows are the fruits of his love and the preparation for larger blessings and deeper joy.

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[*March 28.*]

THE church has often laid itself open to the world's taunt of neglecting the lower needs, which are more clamorous than the higher; but there are many tokens that a clearer understanding of the width of Christian compassion and duty is beginning to prevail. Possibly the warning against the impending possibility of harmful exaggeration in a new direction may not be unnecessary. The new impulses to recognizing the mission of Christianity in regard to social questions are sure to carry some light weights too far. As Luther says somewhere, in his rough strong way, "Human nature is like a drunken peasant. If he is put up on one side of his horse he is sure to fall over on the other." It will be a dark day for the progress of the Christian Church if good men suffer themselves to be drawn aside from its primary work, the preaching of the Gospel and the dealing with the deepest sources of human misery in human sin, to throwing their chief energy into the needful but secondary work of dealing with the fruits of spiritual evil in physical distress. It is true that Jesus pitied the hungry and fed them, and therein he has taught us how wide our sympathies and efforts should be; but it is also true that he rebuked the crowds who came after him only for loaves, and pressed upon them as his true and proper gift the flesh and blood which are the sources and supports of a better life.

Christ's sympathy was incalculably deeper and more poignant than ours can ever be. For his eye was clearer than ours, and saw deeper. To him the single sufferer represented crowds. We mass men in the race, and, generalizing, lose the impressions of in-

dividuals. We have a vague notion that there is a great deal of sorrow in the world, but we do not receive the impact of it all on our own hearts as Jesus Christ did. He saw as a God what he pitied as a man. Nor did the underlying divine knowledge alone deepen his sympathy. The purity of his manhood increased it. A soul entirely delivered from selfish regards would be like an infant's hand for sensitiveness, whereas our palms are indurated in the cuticle by selfishness and our fingers have lost the fineness of touch which would secure sympathy with others' sorrows. With Jesus it was as if the very nerves of his own frame had been prolonged into that of others, so close was his union with them, by the wonderful completeness of his self-oblivion. Our selfishness puts an armor of brass over our hearts, through which the sharp point of others' woes scarcely reaches us, except as a dull blow that does not pierce deeply enough to bring the blood; but Jesus came among men with his naked breast exposed to all the slings and arrows that were showered on all.

He was not only impelled to put forth his miraculous power by the cries of the sufferers or of their intercessors, but sometimes by the quick spontaneous outgoing of his own pity. Before men called he answered, for his own heart anticipated their desires. His pity was no luxurious idle emotion, but the impulse to action. The like should be true of all Christians. No help can be rightly rendered unless it come from a sympathetic heart. Much Christian work is spoiled and made worse than useless by being done in hard, supercilious fashion. Benefits need to be wrapped in softest down of sympathy or they will cut the hand that receives them. Nor is the converse less needful to remember—that without practical issues no sympathy is worth anything. Not merely is it useless to benefit the sufferers, but it harms the person cherishing it. Every emotion which is allowed to rise and pass without its appropriate action tends to harden the heart. If mercy is twice blessed, lazy compassion is twice cursed.—*Dr. Alexander MacLaren.*

(*End of Required Reading for March.*)

GOLD AND SILVER MINING.

BY C. C. GOODWIN.

IN the late campaign more, probably, was written about silver and gold than the majority of people had ever heard before. Still it is safe to say that not one person in a thousand has any clear idea of what mining for the precious metals means, or what are its chief characteristics.

Some quartz mines are found cropping out of the ground; others give no outward sign, at least to the unpractised eye, of their presence.

A quiet old Irishman was placer mining in a ravine about twenty miles north of Helena, Montana. He had a little set of sluices into which he turned the water and shoveled the dirt from the ravine, the water carrying off the dirt, while the gold, being heavier, sank to the floor of the sluices and was saved. He made but a doubtful existence. However, he occasionally saw bits of quartz in his sluices which "looked good," so one day he started up the ravine, watching the ground as he advanced, until he could see no more traces of that particular class of rock; then he turned up the hill. Then his watchfulness increased until he had climbed perhaps six hundred feet up that steep and beautiful hillside, when he lost the last trace of the quartz. Then he began to dig, and hardly had he removed the surface sod until he came upon a ledge. He sank upon it as far as he, unaided, could. The rock assayed satisfactorily; it contained both silver and gold, and no base.

Then he went down the hill and began a tunnel to the ledge. The country rock was solid granite; the ledge on an air line was 400 feet away, but he was sure he would find it all right, and so alone, week after week, month after month, he toiled. It was all blasting ground, but that did not matter to him. He drove on until the ledge was struck; then he continued until he had cross-cut it and found it at that point 60 feet thick. Then he ran drifts up and down

the vein and made an upraise to the surface. All that meant years of ceaseless labor.

Then he strained his credit and built a little five-stamp mill, and began at last to realize something. A year later an English expert came along, looked through the mine, and gave him \$800,000 in cash and a large block of the stock, out of which he realized \$1,200,000 more, and since then the mine has been known as the "Great Drum Lomond," which was found and opened by old Tommy Cruise.

The Granite Mountain Mine, near Phillipsburg Mountain, yielded some ore on the surface, and then was sold to a company of St. Louis gentlemen. The ore deposit was soon exhausted, but the man in charge believed he could find another by a little exploration. It required assessment after assessment to carry on the work, and the owners, with every fresh call, grew more and more doubtful. They were not miners, and the suspicion that a comparatively worthless property had been unloaded upon them daily increased, until they wired the superintendent to close down the mine. In the same hour the superintendent was wiring the owners from Montana that he had struck a real bonanza. The dispatches crossed each other on the wire in transit. The owners realized millions from the mine, and two or three of the finest structures in St. Louis are but the silver taken from that Montana mine and converted into other forms of wealth.

The above are samples of how a hundred successful mines have been found and brought to a paying basis. In a hundred thousand cases similar work has been performed which has brought no returns, for the reason that gold and silver are denominated precious metals is because they are so scarce and so hard to obtain that the cupidity of man never has and never can obtain enough to supply the world's needs.

Parley's Park, or now Park City, Utah, is one of the world's famous silver-mining districts, and a brief description of one of its leading mines may be interesting.

In the year 1872 Robert Craig Chambers, who had been operating a mine in southern Utah for Messrs. Hearst, Hagin, and Tevis of San Francisco, not liking the presentation made by his explorations of the mine, paid a visit to Salt Lake City, in part to communicate with his principals. He was a thorough miner. When a boy, twenty years before, he had crossed the plains and settled in Plumas County, California, and there had graduated as a past grand master in all the mysteries of placer and gold quartz mining. In Salt Lake City he heard that a prospector in Parley's Park, returning to camp at night, had sat down to rest a few minutes, and while resting had aimlessly begun tapping the rock at his feet with his prospecting pole pick. He broke off a piece of the rock, when, its peculiar colors attracting his attention, he put the piece in his pocket and went on to camp. The few men in camp looked at it and told him they believed it had something in it. He sent it away for assay, and the return showed more than 200 ounces of silver to the ton. The prospector thereupon began sinking at the point where he found the first piece of ore; the good rock continued, and it was soon clear that there was a strong ledge in place in the hill.

That was the situation as described to Mr. Chambers. Next day he started for Parley's Park, thirty-five miles east of Salt Lake City, and with an altitude of 7,500 feet.

He looked at the prospect, obtained a temporary option on the mine for \$30,000, and eventually bought the mine for Hearst, Hagin, Tevis, and himself. It was the Ontario Mine. He has been its superintendent ever since. Two things were speedily discovered. The ore was rich, but exceedingly rebellious, and the water was going to be a serious matter, for from the first it was an exceedingly wet mine. It may be explained that there is a vast difference between free and rebellious ores. Free gold ore only requires crushing and running over copper

plates to save the treasure. Free silver ore (like the Comstock) requires only crushing and working in pans, with a little salt, for a couple of hours, to save the bulk of the precious metals. Ores carrying as much as 15 per cent of lead or copper are easily smelted; but where ore contains, with silver and gold, a small percentage of lead and zinc and sulphur, then it requires crushing, roasting, working in pans, or leaching, and the expense of machinery and labor is correspondingly increased. Of this latter class is most of the ore in the Ontario, though here and there is a chute of ore with lead enough to smelt.

With this as a preliminary we come to some of the figures of equipment and results. The reduction works, including stamps, furnaces, rotary dryers, gas-plant, and amalgamating plant, have cost \$375,000. A short tunnel had been run early in the working of the mine which tapped the vein at a depth of 600 feet below the top of the shaft. When the mine reached a depth of 1,000 feet the flow of water was so great that thirty-one Knowles pumps of various sizes and capacity were necessary to hoist and discharge the water through the tunnel at the 600 foot level. The flow of water was 180,000 gallons per hour, and the machinery was taxed excessively for months, until the great Cornish pump was set up and commenced running. That pump and its accessories cost a little more than \$300,000.

It becoming plain that if the deeper levels were to be economically worked some other disposition must be made of the water, another tunnel was begun and driven against fearful difficulties 15,494 feet to the ledge on the 1,500 foot level, at a cost of \$470,000. That tunnel is discharging 9,000 gallons of water every minute at the present time, or 540,000 gallons per hour. Since this tunnel reached and cut the lode it has been turned and continued along the lode to almost the west line of the Ontario claims, and is draining the mine between the 1,000 and 1,500 foot levels, most of which is virgin ground.

Just prior to the railroad's reaching the

park in 1882 the pumps and hoisting works were consuming 100 tons of coal per day, at a cost of \$8.75 per ton. It must be kept in mind by eastern people that the altitude of this mine is 1,000 feet higher than the crest of Mt. Washington.

Up to date (December 27, 1896) the mine has yielded 535,000 net tons of ore, which has produced 33,000,000 fine ounces of silver. And it has paid 210 dividends, amounting to \$13,355,000. These dividends were paid monthly until October 31, 1892, when they were suspended until January 31, 1896. Prior to 1892 the dividends were 50 cents per share; since January 31, 1896, they have been 10 cents per share.

The mine and mill have for 1896 employed 420 men. The monthly pay-roll for labor exclusively is \$40,000.

In all its history the mine never looked so well as it has during the past few months. It has been opened 1,500 feet deep, and miles and miles of drifts have been run.

It has sustained at profitable wages several hundred men steadily for more than twenty years, while other hundreds have been employed in distant forests in procuring timber, in coal mines, and in transporting its supplies.

In the gloomy days it has never for a moment closed down, but with a grim persistence its work has been pushed, and to-day it stands at the head of Utah silver mines, and is one of the foremost silver mines of the world. It has been under the same directing hand for twenty-four years, and no emergency, no accident, no success, and no depression has seemed in the least to break the quiet serenity or the steady purpose which has driven the work from the first.

The above tells of one Utah silver mine. It may not be amiss to tell of one Utah gold-mine. But as preliminary it is proper to state that a dozen years ago Captain De La Mar, who had been brought up a seaman, who later had drifted to Colorado and learned assaying, something of the working of ores on a large scale, and something of the formation of mines, went to Silver City, Idaho, and for a trifle purchased a

mine. From that he made an immense amount of money, and, going to Utah on business, he heard of the mine now known as the De La Mar Mine, at De La Mar, Nevada, a place away in the southern desert, one hundred and fifty miles from the nearest railroad station and fifty miles beyond where stages were running. He examined and bought the property; then water had to be brought over the hills twenty-five miles, then a mill built, and a vast amount of work in many directions done; but finally everything was completed, and within a year after the mill started the amount of money received from the mine was only a little less than \$1,000,000. Being in Salt Lake City in the autumn of 1895, his attention was directed to a gold-mine, the "Golden Gate," in the Mercur mining district, fifty miles southwest of this city, and going there he made an examination and bought the property for something less than \$100,000.

This Mercur district is the South Africa of the United States. That is, it is a sedimentary deposit carrying gold which extends over an area of many square miles. The first mine, the "Mercur," was discovered more than twenty years ago, but the gold could not be saved by any cheap process, so it remained unworked for more than twenty years. But the discovery of the cyanide process made it possible to mine and reduce the ores at about \$4 per ton, and, as it yielded from \$9 to \$50 per ton, it quickly became a dividend-payer and extensive prospecting was begun in that region, until now many experts believe that the district will be really a rival of South Africa as a gold producer. But in the Golden Gate another rebellious element, in the form of a heavy percentage of arsenic, was found. Since the purchase developments have steadily progressed, until now more than 300,000 tons of ore have been blocked out, which runs in different chutes from \$12 to \$60 per ton. The great Prof. Charles Butters, the scientist who has established in South Africa the successful working of the ores there by the Siemens-Halske electrical process, has gone to Salt

Lake and Mercur, and it is expected that early in the coming year extensive reduction works will be in operation there, not only on the Golden Gate, but several other properties. Some people confidently assert that the gold yield of Utah will next year exceed in value the silver yield.

I have given above only the merest details of two Utah mines. There are many other districts and individual mines the story of which would be full of interest.

By the estimate of Mr. Valentine of Wells, Fargo, and Company, Utah in 1896 produced 8,728,705 ounces of silver and 93,896 ounces of gold. Of these amounts 7,161,021 ounces of silver and 56,271 ounces of gold were obtained from base ores; that is, ores that contain copper, lead, zinc, and other base metals.

In the Bingham, Tintic, Cottonwood, Horn Silver, and several other districts the gold and silver are generally found in combination with lead; indeed lead prevails extensively in all the mining districts. In the state more than 70,000,000 pounds of lead was produced.

The recapitulation of the mineral yield for the year, as given by Mr. Valentine, is as follows:

3,561,860 pounds copper at 7½c.....	\$ 267,139.50
73,430,060 pounds lead at \$37 per ton..	1,358,456.11
8,728,705 ounces fine silver.....	5,843,868.00
93,896 ounces fine gold.....	1,877,920.00
Total.....	\$9,347,383.61

The industry is expected to greatly expand in the near future, especially in the output of gold.

It may be said further, in reference to Utah, that she contains more iron and coal

than Pennsylvania; she has native anti-mony in abundance; she has one bed of sulphur nearly pure where 6,000,000 tons have been developed; she has an ever growing salt field in Great Salt Lake; she has ledges of pure rock salt; beds of soda and kaolin; clay that yields 50 per cent of aluminum; in short, a greater variety of metals and minerals than any other state in the Union.

The real story of the mining progress of the West reads like a romance; the bright side deals in Aladdin lamp transformations from poverty to wealth; the other side is dark with disappointments, wasted lives, broken hopes and hearts; and the sorrowful part is that the successes are the exceptions, the failures almost the rule. But through mining it has been possible, in less than fifty years, to create and dedicate to order and to law nine states and two territories; to blaze the trails through the wilderness over which the delicate sandals of civilization could, unsoiled, follow; to turn into the coffers of the East a stream of the precious metals which is ever swelling in volume, and which aggregates more than \$4,000,000,000, which has vitalized business there and made the nation great; which has caused in the desert the locomotive to become a cloud by day and a pillar of fire by night, to bear the burdens of commerce; which has upreared temples to law, to religion, and to learning, and, where only the frown of the desert was known, to consecrate the whole region, greater in area than all the republic east of the Mississippi, to the peace which comes with the gentle American home, and to the freedom which is an American birthright.

AT LOVE'S BEHEST.

BY LISA A. FLETCHER.

WHERE most is love there most is pain;
 Who loveth most hath grief for guest,
 And joy sings in a minor strain
 At love's behest.

THE SON OF A TORY.

BY CLINTON SCOLLARD.

BEING THE EXPERIENCES OF WILTON AUBREY IN THE MOHAWK VALLEY AND ELSEWHERE, DURING THE SUMMER OF 1777,
NOW FOR THE FIRST TIME EDITED FROM PRIVATE PAPERS.

CHAPTER IV.

IN THE WILDERNESS.

I WAS forced to move slowly, the darkness had so increased, and it was hard upon midnight ere I reached the trail through the forest. Here new difficulties beset my path, owing to the denseness of the gloom, and I lost my way half a dozen times before I came to the slope at the crest of which the cabin stood. To my infinite surprise a flickering light shone from the doorway, and I hastened forward in apprehension. Attracted by the noise of my approach, a man appeared upon the threshold. He shaded his eyes and peered into the night. As I drew nearer I recognized him as Silas, the elder of the Thompson boys.

"Hello!" he cried, half raising the rifle he held in his hand. "Who is it?"

"'Tis I, Wilton Aubrey," I replied.

"We've been waiting for you these two hours," said he, as he grasped my hand.

My father and Will Thompson now joined us, and there was a series of questions and counter questions.

"Did you see Schroepel?" the Thompsons demanded, taking it for granted that I had been to the boat.

"No; I wonder where he can be," I said, feeling my ground a little.

"Silas had word from him late this evening," interposed my father, "that the Whigs have discovered we are hiding here and are planning to surprise us to-morrow. It is Schroepel's advice that we get off to-night."

"He said he'd be on hand at the boat at two o'clock," put in Will Thompson. "We sha'n't be much late if we start at once."

Then he added, turning to me:

"We'd have left before, but were afraid of missing you."

"There's nothing to delay us now," my father said.

"But David!" I exclaimed, having in mind my message to Margaret.

"Oh, he will understand why we have hastened away, never fear! And there are really no further instructions to give him. I can't see that it matters a whit."

Although my father intended thus to dismiss the matter of David, I resolved, inasmuch as the most direct route to the boat would take us past the house, that I would rouse our faithful servitor and have a word with him.

The possessions we intended to carry were collected, Will Thompson took from its cranny the half-burned pine torch, and our little company started. We agreed that until we neared the cleared land there would be no danger in the lighted flambeau. The rain was still falling, but it had not perceptibly increased in force, and, for the present, protected much of the time by the trees, it caused us but trifling inconvenience.

After the torch had been extinguished and we had come to the three pines in the rear of our home I made known my determination to speak with David. My father and both the Thompsons demurred, but I was stubborn, and they finally consented to a brief halt.

I know not what impelled me to approach the house cautiously, but certainly it proved most fortunate that I did so. Thinking I detected a noise near the rear doorway, I paused by the well-sweep and listened. I had about decided that I had been deceived by my imagination when a man rose from the doorstep and moved toward me. I was so startled that for an instant I had no power of action. When I recovered from my surprise I crouched close to the earth, and presently the man stopped.

"Umph!" I heard him say. "I must

have been dreaming. I thought I saw something moving out here."

He yawned, stretched himself, and shuffled back to his post of observation, while I, with all possible care, retreated and joined my waiting companions.

"We must be on our guard," I announced. "The house is watched."

"They suspect David now that they know you are still in the neighborhood," said Silas Thompson.

Warily we made our way toward the river. The realization that I must leave the settlement without sending any message to Margaret was bitter indeed. Doubtless others would warn the valley in due time of the approach of St. Leger and his forces, but there would be no one to bear to my beloved the assurance of my safety. Forced by circumstances into a position I abhorred, racked in mind and exhausted in body, it is small wonder that despair took hold upon me, and I cared little whether I was living or dead. I gave no heed to Schroepel's complaints at our late arrival, and automatically took part in getting the boat under way.

Our craft was built after the model of the large river *bateaux*. It was flat bottomed and equipped with both poles and oars. There were transverse seats, as in an ordinary row boat, and along the sides, a foot or more below the gunwale, a plank was stretched on which to stand when punting. Though ugly in appearance the boat was stanch, and we had nothing to fear either from snags or sharp rocks.

I can recall little that happened during the first hours of our journey. Schroepel, at the prow, kept a sharp lookout ahead, shouting back his commands to my father, who was steering. The other three of us relieved one another at the oars. When rowing I bent to my work doggedly, though my muscles ached and my head was in a whirl; when it was my turn to rest I lay in a kind of stupor on the canvas of the tent. Toward morning the weather cleared, and the sun had risen before we drew into a little cove and beached our boat. I was so overcome with fatigue that I flung myself

upon the grass beneath a great sycamore tree and was very soon in a profound slumber. When roused for breakfast I ate mechanically, and then stretched myself out and fell asleep again. It was mid-afternoon before I awakened. I was stiff, and there was a queer feeling in my head, but when I stirred about this passed away. I found Schroepel preparing to cook some bacon over a glowing bed of coals; the Thompson boys were making the few additional preparations for our primitive meal, while my father, the picture of content, was reclining upon a blanket and watching the proceedings with a lively interest.

Our next halt was at twilight, but we hastened on again as soon as the moon rose. Toward morning we once more encamped, and rested till the following midday, when we continued our voyage until we were within about three miles of Fort Stanwix, the point of portage to Wood Creek, the old "carrying-place" of the Indians. To avoid being seen and detained by the garrison of the fort we must make the portage after dark, and midnight seemed the most suitable hour for the attempt. About eleven we got under way. A brisk south breeze was blowing, and clouds were racing across the face of the moon. There was no need of caution until we approached the spot where *bateaux* commonly landed. This was some distance from the fort, but inasmuch as we thought it quite possible that we might find guards here stationed we scanned the shore narrowly as we drew near. A bittern rose from the reeds close at hand and whirled away with an angry boom. Though for the moment we were startled, this incident assured us that there were no watchers to be feared, so we made haste to partially unload our boat, bestowing a portion of our possessions in the canvas of the tent. Although two journeys were necessary we accomplished the portage easily and without incident, thanks to Schroepel's familiarity with the ground. As I looked at the dark outline of the fort, while we silently passed and repassed near it, I wondered how soon and under what circumstances I should visit the scene again, little

dreaming how many dramatic episodes were here shortly to be enacted, and how prominent a part I was destined to take in them.

Owing to the excitement and to the novelty of our experiences, now that I had recovered from the strain of my night's adventures by the Slanting Waters, I had somewhat regained my spirits, though I could never long banish Margaret from my mind, and at times the thought of her, nearly distraught—as my fancy pictured her—over my wretched end, seemed more than I could bear.

Wood Creek, the stream upon which we now embarked, was narrow and tortuous. Moreover it traversed a swampy region, much of which was overgrown by a well-nigh impenetrable forest. As we proceeded with infinite labor, our progress frequently interrupted by snags and broken limbs, herons and cranes, roused from their slumbers, would wing away with raucous cries. Again a loon or an owl would hoot dismally down at us. To my father and myself, unaccustomed to these night noises, they were at first alarming and uncanny.

Presently we lost sight of the sky, interlacing and overhanging boughs shut out the moonlight, and we were forced to kindle a blaze of pine knots in one of our iron pans. Placing this improvised torch in the prow, we worked slowly forward, yet when the gray of dawn began to show we had progressed but a few miles into the wilderness. As soon as we were able to see the nature of the ground about us we selected a dry spot and encamped. I had been unconscious a number of hours when I was awakened by the tormenting attacks of gnats and mosquitoes. After vainly trying to fight them off I got upon my feet, and, finding my companions still slumbering, walked on tiptoe until I had put a short distance between us, and then strolled on into the woods, which at this point were not dense. I was careful to take my bearings as I went so that I might not lose my way, and was on the point of turning back when I came upon a grassy space, free of trees, through which ran a well-beaten trail.

Indians! With the thought came a sensation of danger which amounted to nothing less than instinct, and in all haste I concealed myself behind a tangle of wild berry bushes that grew on one side of the path. I had little more than crouched down when out of the forest issued a band of savages in single file, hideously painted and well armed. Two of them had fresh scalps dangling at their belts, and I was horrified to see that a white man wearing the buff and blue uniform of a Continental soldier was their prisoner. He was gagged, his hands were tied behind him, and there was a look upon his face that would have moved the stoniest heart to compassion. One Indian was leading him by a leathern noose which was fashioned about his neck, while another behind kept prodding him viciously with an arrow. There were twenty in the band, and they passed me like so many evil shadows.

As they vanished in the forest I slipped from my concealment and watched them until a turn in the trail shut them from sight. What madness possessed me I know not, but with scarcely an instant's hesitation I crept after them. It never occurred to me that to rescue the poor wretch from the clutches of the savages was a wild impossibility, something that half a dozen experienced woodsmen would have hesitated to attempt. The awful anguish written upon the soldier's face was burned into my brain, and more and more determined to succor him did I become as I followed the footsteps of his captors.

Careful to keep far enough in the rear to avoid the danger of discovery, at length, after having been perhaps a quarter of a mile upon their track, I saw that they had reached their encampment. We had drawn away from Wood Creek to higher ground. The trees in the vicinity were largely maples and hemlocks, and as the latter were of the scrub variety I had an excellent opportunity to approach the encampment, as I supposed, unobserved. Abandoning the trail, I advanced with the greatest caution, and had almost arrived at a point where I could detect what the redskins were about when the

swish of a released bough caused me to look back. There, little more than ten feet distant, stood an Indian, tomahawk in hand, a grin of triumph on his hideous features. I was too amazed to move or speak, and the mouth of the savage widened as he regarded me. Then something occurred that caused my expression to change suddenly, and the Indian's suspicions were aroused. From behind a thick scrub hemlock appeared Schroepel's form. As unerringly as ever panther sprang he was upon the redskin, before the savage had time to turn. One set of sinewy fingers gripped the Indian's throat and stifled his cry for aid; the other seized the wrist of the hand which held the tomahawk, and the weapon dropped useless to the earth.

"Quick!" cried Schroepel in an undertone, as he laid the half-strangled savage on the ground, "take his knife and cut his leg-gings into strips. We must bind him."

I did as commanded with as much expedition as I could manage, and together we secured and gagged our captive.

"He'll free himself after a few hours, if they don't find him before then," said Schroepel. "In the meanwhile this is no place for us."

I realized but too well the truth of this statement, although the thought of the poor soldier still tugged at my heart. Doing as Schroepel bade, I followed in his footsteps, and ere long we stood in the grassy space where I had first seen the redskins. Here my rescuer paused and looked at me quizzically, his grim, swarthy features gradually changing into something like a smile. Presently he thrust his long lean finger at me.

"Young man," he said in his curious broken English which it would be impossible to reproduce, "let me give you a grain of advice, and do you treasure it up, for old Schroepel knows what he's talking about. Whatever else you fool with, let a red 'Injun' alone. You may think the dirty rascals are with us in this struggle, but I tell you if they found you spying on their camp—friend or foe—they'd cut you up and feed you to their dogs. To an 'Injun' a white man's a white man, and however pretty the cusses may

talk to your face they'll scalp you on the quiet if they get the chance, and I reckon you'd rather know your scalp's on your head instead of drying in a wigwam, even if it's that of the biggest chief of the Six Nations."

This speech delivered, the wisdom and truth of which I often had occasion to recall later, Schroepel led on again, and it was not until afterward that I learned how he had chanced to come so opportunely to my assistance. Awakening soon after I strolled away from our camping place, he had noted my absence, and fearful lest I should become lost in the forest had traced my steps to the Indian trail. Surmising what I had done, he set hastily out in pursuit, detected the savage (probably a straggler belonging to the band) hard upon my heels, and doubtless saved me from a very harrowing experience, if not from death.

We found my father and the two Thompsons in a state of wonder and anxiety.

"We've just been into the woods a bit," said Schroepel in response to their inquiries. "We've seen some 'Injun' signs—" here he screwed one eye around and winked slyly at me—"and we might better be getting along."

Fortunately the soldiers of the garrison at Fort Stanwix had not as yet been able to do much toward obstructing Wood Creek, owing to the presence of the Indians, and after an hour or two our progress was quite encouraging, a fact that was in part due to the gradually widening channel. I own that I was far from comfortable during the remainder of that day, and I saw that Schroepel was apprehensive, for he kept watch of the wooded banks with a lynx-like scrutiny. Our voyage, however, was uninterrupted, and when, late that evening, we camped upon the shore of Oneida Lake, on the farther side of Fish Creek, I felt for the first time since my narrow escape something like security.

But the fair fortune that had thus far attended us on our journey deserted us on the following day. Late in the afternoon, as we were approaching the lower end of the lake, we were overtaken by a severe thunder-

storm, our boat was nearly swamped, and we were all of us drenched to the skin. Then came a sudden change in the atmosphere. The wind, which had been blowing from the south all day, assisting our progress materially, veered swiftly to the west. The air grew more and more chilly as night came on, and by the time we reached the deserted walls of Fort Brewerton we were every one of us, in our still soaked clothing, shaking with the cold.

In one of the cabins formerly used as the officers' quarters we kindled a great fire in the rude stone fireplace, and spread out our wet garments to dry. I gave my father a vigorous rubbing, brewed him a hot drink, and wrapped him in a pair of blankets that had escaped the general deluge. In spite of these precautions, before an hour had passed he was in a high fever. Thus he lay for several days. I strove to keep a brave heart, but I knew that his condition was most critical, and saw by the manner of my companions that they shared in my anxiety. Only when forced to do so from exhaustion did I leave my father's side, and then he had the same watchful care that I gave him. I think I suffered more during these hours of uncertainty than later when I had to confront sorrow face to face. My trying and unnatural position was forgotten; even my grief over leaving my sweetheart under such a gloomy cloud became as naught. I seemed to see my father, who had ever cherished me so fondly, and for whom I had the warmest affection despite our differences, wasting away before me. The last strong tie of blood that bound me to my kind was, to all appearances, about to be severed.

But the fever left him unexpectedly: his old energy and stubbornness reasserted themselves, and one morning when I was discussing with Schroepeel outside our quarters the feasibility of resuming our journey after two or three days' further waiting my father called me to him and proposed that we start at once. This proposition at first struck me as the height of folly, but after the matter had been talked over with the others we decided to venture it. The invalid throve under the change, and on the

afternoon of the 18th of July we disembarked at the river landing-place at Oswego, and took up our abode in one of the disused traders' houses within a stone's throw of the fort.

CHAPTER V.

AT OSWEGO.

JUST before noontide on the third day after our arrival I ascended to the summer-house which the energetic Major Duncan (he who commanded the fort for several years after the French and Indian War) had caused to be constructed among the boughs of a lofty linden which stood at the end of the bowling-green southeast of the fortifications. It was little more than a rude platform, but it afforded a wide view of the lake to the east beyond the tongue of land which in part sheltered the harbor entrance. I had discovered the outlook the day we reached Oswego, and had repaired thither, at my father's request, several times between each rising and setting of the sun to scan the lake in search of the constantly expected armament. It was delightfully cool, and with a blanket for a cushion and the tree trunk for a back I had spent a number of quiet hours in this leafy arerie.

I must confess that frequently I paid small heed to the sweeping curves of the shore-line, and the distant point where the boats of St. Leger were first likely to come into view. My mind would revert to the settlement and Margaret, and then I had no eyes for the shimmering blue water and no ears for the bird-song that ever broke in little waves of melody about me.

I had already made one considerable tarry in the tree top that morning, and was not now inclined to remain. So having given the coast and the horizon careful scrutiny, and satisfied myself that there was no sign of the awaited expedition, I descended leisurely with the intention of seeking out my father and delivering my accustomed report.

Although the bowling-green, where the officers amused themselves in Major Duncan's day, was still smooth and grassy, the ground beyond it, which had once been cleared and used as a vegetable garden, was

a tangle of weeds, briars, and small maple saplings. Hardly had I regained an erect posture after my spring from the lower branches of the linden when this thicket parted and an Indian stepped into sight. Saluting me with just a perceptible nod, and giving me "good-day" in the best of English, he came toward me across the green.

Startled though I was, I did my best to return his greeting as though I had been accustomed all my life to have Indians appear to me in this fashion. I had an excellent chance to observe him as he strode over the grass. His dress was half savage and half civilized. He was tall, yet well knit, and although his face showed many racial marks there was that in it which betokened unusual character. The feathers in his head-dress told me he was a chief, but his manner would have afforded reason for this belief had there been nothing visible to indicate his rank.

He eyed me sharply as he drew nigh.

"I have never seen you before," he said, his gaze still upon me. "You are not of Colonel Butler's company."

"No," I answered, "I am here with my father to join Colonel St. Leger."

We were now standing facing one another in the center of the green.

"You come from the Mohawk Valley perhaps?"

I assented.

"My old home," he said.

"Ah!" I returned.

"Yes; possibly you may have heard of me there. I am Captain Brant."

I had surmised as much when he said the valley was his former home, yet I felt a strange chill pass over me at the sound of his name, though at this time it was by no means so dreaded as it grew to be later. The title "Captain," conferred upon him by the English, he was fond of using when among white men.

He forebore to question me in regard to my identity, but I saw that he was waiting for me to inform him who I was.

"I am called Wilton Aubrey," I said.

"I have heard of your father," he replied.

His speech had the Indian terseness, and his nationality showed itself in the deep tones of his voice. One listening to his conversation, however, and not seeing the man, would hardly have detected that he was not using his native tongue.

"Our friends," he said, lifting his eyes to the top of the linden—"they have not yet been sighted?"

"There is at present no sign of them," I answered.

He led the way downward toward the river, asking a few keen questions as we went. Despite his pleasant manner, it was with a feeling of relief that I parted from him at the door of the blockhouse where we were lodged, and watched him swing easily on to the waterside. Here he stepped into a canoe, seized the paddle, and was soon skimming across the harbor toward the opposite shore, where he disappeared in the wood.

Two days later, when I climbed to my post of observation at mid-morning, I descried several black specks dotting the water in the far distance. I hailed my discovery with joy. In my present mood inaction was well-nigh intolerable. Constant activity was my only refuge from the thoughts that crowded upon me; for, struggle as I would, I could not put the hateful part I was forced to play from my mind. Yet I meant to do faithfully what appeared to be my duty.

My father received my news with undisguised delight. He was far from strong, yet his wonderful nervous energy made him seem almost vigorous.

The tidings spread rapidly, and by the time the boats rounded the adjacent point all Butler's corps, and a small body of Indians under Brant, had gathered upon the beach to greet them. As the *bateaux* swung into full view a ringing cheer went up from the "Rangers," and a wild war-whoop from the savages.

"I don't see St. Leger," my father said, shading his eyes and gazing intently at the nearing force. "And surely there must be other boats! It would be madness to proceed against Fort Stanwix with these few men."

We continued to scan the *bateaux* eagerly.

"There are Sir John and Colonel Claus!" cried my father at length. "Yes; they recognize me," and he waved his hand in response to a similar greeting from two men standing side by side in the nearest craft.

"Glad to see you, Aubrey," called the colonel, as they drew within hailing distance.

"Is St. Leger with you?" shouted my father.

"No; he's several days behind with the rest of the command," was the reply.

The foremost *bateau* was soon beached, and the leaders leaped ashore. They shook hands warmly with my father, who presented me to them. Colonel Claus, who was the baronet's brother-in-law, and considerably his senior, greeted me cordially, but in Sir John's manner toward me I detected an ill-concealed coldness. Instantly I felt repelled, the whole air of the man was in such direct contrast with the bluff, hearty bearing of the colonel. There was a hard look about his eyes, and I fancied I saw a sneer lurking in the curve of his lips. He turned to give some orders to the officers in command of the other boats, and with my father and Colonel Claus I withdrew to a point a little above the scene of disembarkation.

"These men belong to Sir John's regiment and to the Hanau Chasseurs," said the colonel. "You will find some old acquaintances among the 'Greens', as we call Sir John's troop."

"Yes," replied my father, "I already notice familiar faces."

Brant now approached and addressed our companion, who walked away with him. Shortly we were joined by the Thompson boys and Schroepel, and in their company watched with interest the unloading of the boats. This task accomplished, several companies formed into line and marched toward the fort, while the remaining men busied themselves over the disposal of the provisions and camp equipment. For the rest of the day there was no lack of occupation. The Thompsons and Schroepel were at once enrolled in one of Sir John's companies, and left us to take up their quarters with their comrades. Acquaintances of my father's

were constantly coming and going, and toward night there was a brief drill upon the parade-ground within the fort. Before my father's position and mine in the expedition could be determined it was necessary to await the arrival of the commander-in-chief, consequently for the present we were only spectators.

Late that evening I heard a wild holling from the opposite side of the harbor. My father had retired, but I still sat without, too full of excitement over the scenes of the day to feel in the least drowsy. Rising, I went toward the waterside, where I encountered several of the "Rangers."

"What is it?" I asked of them.

"A party of Brant's Indians just arriving," answered one of the group with a shrug. "It's a good job they are our friends. I shouldn't care to march into the interior if they weren't."

Suddenly a great flame shot up into the night, and we beheld fifty or more half-naked forms dancing with piercing whoops and uncouth gyrations in a cleared space upon the farther bank. Fascinated by the weird spectacle, I watched them until they finally ceased from sheer exhaustion, and then took my way slowly back to the block-house. As I drew near the corner of the building I saw a solitary figure awaiting my approach. At first I thought it was my father, who had been roused by the savage clamor and come out to discover what was transpiring. I soon realized, however, that it was a man of heavier build, but I did not recognize him until he addressed me. It was Sir John Johnson.

"Your father is within, I presume," he said.

"I think so," I answered, "unless he has been disturbed since I left by yonder uproar."

"Our friends *are* a trifle demonstrative. One might almost imagine they had caught a Whig and were making merry at his expense."

The baronet laughed, and there was mockery in his mirth. How chanced he here at this hour? Was it chance? These thoughts came into my mind as I paused near him.

He had planted himself where I would most naturally pass on my way to the door, and I must step aside if I would avoid him. His words, his whole attitude, stirred all the latent antagonism in me.

"I trust our friends," I exclaimed, purposely using and emphasizing the same terms he had applied to the savages, "will not turn on us in case there should be a scarcity of Whigs for their devilish cruelties."

"I notice that you say *us*," answered the baronet in an insulting tone.

Then it flashed upon me that this man suspected me. Had he ground for more than a suspicion? He had lately been in New York. He had heard, perhaps, that my uncle was a Whig, and knew that I had lived several years in his family. Could it be that he knew more than this?—that a report of my participation in the affair of the tea or the guns had reached his ears? It seemed most unlikely. As these thoughts raced through my brain he fixed his penetrating gaze upon me in the July starlight. If he expected that I would flinch he was grievously disappointed. I realized that I was being tested, and I flatter myself that I was quite as self-contained as he. I looked him fairly in the eyes as I replied to his insinuation.

"Certainly," said I. "Why not *us*, Sir John Johnson?"

This was a challenge direct, yet his answer was evasive.

"Ah, to be sure!" he replied. "My remark was merely a pleasantry. But tell me," he continued, with a sudden change of manner, "how are our affairs prospering in the valley? I haven't as yet had an opportunity of speaking in private with your father, and strolled down at this late hour in the hope that I might find him still visible."

"My father is far from strong," I said, "and the stir of your arrival has quite exhausted him. He has been in bed an hour or more. As for news from the valley, I must confess myself but a poor bearer of tidings."

I was in nowise mollified or thrown off my guard by his swift veer to the agreeable,

and determined, if I could, to bring the interview to a close. Had I considered my own interests I should have adopted a very different attitude from the one I assumed. In fact, had there been time for second thought I should have put forth every effort to produce a favorable impression on Sir John. He was second in command, and it behooved me to stand in his good graces quite as much as in those of St. Leger. All this, however, I did not at the moment consider, for the devil of combativeness in me was aroused.

The baronet appeared to take no notice of my last declaration, for he continued to question me.

"What is your opinion of the prospect for a rising in Tyrone County when once Fort Stanwix has fallen?" said he. "Will the Whigs not all be king's men then? Shall we meet with any opposition, think you?"

Nothing could have been more unfortunate than my reply, though I gave him offense most unwittingly. Even to this day I can see nothing in my words at which a man not unduly sensitive should have taken umbrage.

"Sir," I said, "you who have spent most of your life in the county can certainly judge of these matters better than I. Your Tyrone neighbors, I fancy, have not changed since you took up your abode elsewhere."

I suppose it was my reference to his flight into Canada that fired his anger, although I have since heard it many times affirmed that he felt perfectly justified in the course he took, and regarded what some called "breaking his parole" to be no stain upon his honor.

I saw his face contract and his arm twitch, and I truly believe he would have struck me had I not started back a step. He broke out with an awful oath—and he had plenty at his command.

"If it weren't for your father, you white-livered whelp," he cried, "I'd hand you over to my Mississagas, and you'd have to grow a new tongue before you answered me again like that!"

I began stammering something about not intending to affront him, when he turned on his heel and strode off into the night, leav-

ing me with the consciousness that I had made a bitter enemy of one who might work me incalculable harm.

CHAPTER VI.

THE COMING OF ST. LEGER.

As may be imagined, my sleep was restless and broken, for through my dreams stalked the form of the baronet, his dark face grown sinister. I was out before bugle-call the next morning feeling perplexed and dull of brain, but a plunge in the river washed away part of the care-cobweb. Then I climbed to the now familiar outlook in the linden, whence I saw the day grow into full glory. The ringing rising-peal came up to me from the fort, the smoke ascended from the Indian encampment on the farther side of the harbor, disheveled forms issued from the blockhouses, and presently there was a general stir. Canoes began to shoot to and fro across the placid water, there was a bustle near the *bateaux*, and filled with the energetic spirit which animated the scene I returned to our quarters and set about getting breakfast.

Later there were maneuvers to watch both within and without the fort, and while my father and I were laughing over the blunders of the "awkward squad" in one of the companies of Johnson's "Greens," we heard some one hailing us from the crest of the slope below which the drill was taking place. Looking up, we beheld Colonel Claus gesticulating to us. He held something in his hand which I inferred to be a letter.

"A message from St. Leger!" he shouted.

Instantly my father was all excitement. His cheeks, which had more than their wonted flush that morning, now flamed, and I had fairly to use force to prevent him from rushing up the slope, so eager was he to learn the burden of the message.

"Your friend, our commander, is at Salmon Creek, twenty miles distant," called the colonel, as we at length approached the spot where he stood.

"He will reach here to-day then!" exclaimed my father.

"No; I fear not, since he writes asking

that we join him there and march overland."

"March overland?"

"Yes; but such a course is impracticable. I have consulted Brant, who says his Indians will not go to Salmon Creek. I am just sending word to St. Leger to this effect. He will undoubtedly come on to-morrow."

I spent the remainder of the day in trying to keep my father quiet. The tidings of the morning had given him new nervous strength, and by night his restlessness had reduced me to a state bordering on exhaustion. Rarely still for more than fifteen minutes, he kept me moving (for I would not leave his side) from blockhouse to fort, from fort to beach, and from beach to river-landing. At dusk-fall, however, I prevailed upon him to remain within. He would not listen to me at first, but when I mentioned the possibility of his becoming so fatigued that he would not have his full strength on the morrow he yielded to my wishes, though not without making light of my fears. When I had finally seen him safely bestowed in bed, sleeping deeply under the influence of a quieting potion I had induced him to swallow, I drew a long breath of relief, and went out into the darkness to find some calm for my own tensely strung nerves. It was generally known that the commander-in-chief, with the remainder of the forces, would arrive on the following day, and a subdued air of expectancy pervaded the whole encampment.

I came upon Schroepel near the river-landing, and he joined me. He was in high feather, and his rude jocularity had the effect of brightening my dull spirits. Since the episode in the wilderness I had felt a strong liking for the sturdy Dutchman, which had doubtless originated in gratitude for his timely rescue but which had grown into something closer and warmer. His manner told me that he returned my friendship, and when I again sought the blockhouse it was with the sense that I had at least one true, albeit rough, adviser to lean upon.

My father was awake the next day at early bird-song, and I heard him stirring about soon after sunrise. I was glad to notice the absence of the flush in his face as we sat

over our breakfast of coffee, bacon, and hardtack. He enjoyed the meal, and remarked that he had not felt so well in weeks. Toward mid-morning he persuaded me to let him ascend with me to the linden top. Cleats had been fastened in several places upon the tree trunk to make the climb easy, and, as I was able to follow closely and assist him, it seemed wiser to grant his whim than to rouse his ill humor by opposing it. For an hour or more we reclined among the branches, intent upon the undulating shoreline. Then our watch was rewarded. My father was the first to detect the approaching boats. My attention had wandered from the water for a moment, and when, at my father's cry, I turned my eyes again to the lake, I saw the *bateaux* clearly. They had evidently kept very near the shore or we should have observed them sooner. Now they were but a few miles distant.

Presently we heard faint shouts from the beach that were taken up again at the fort, and we knew that others had descried the coming expedition. We remained in the linden until the *bateaux* were a little more than a mile away, and then joined the gathering on the lake shore. The troops were drawn up under arms to receive their commander. Sir John and Colonel Claus were pacing up and down in earnest consultation in front of the "Greens," who formed the center of the array. Brant had massed his Indians on the left with Butler's Rangers, while the Chasseurs occupied a position on the right. Beyond the last named troop, on a slight elevation, my father and I took our places.

As the *bateaux* drew near, Colonel Claus caught sight of us and bade us join the baronet and himself, an invitation which my father eagerly, and I reluctantly, accepted. My father's composure surprised me. He evinced no sign of the emotion which I knew was stirring him, save that there was an unwonted brightness about his eyes and a spasmodic twitching at the corners of his mouth.

"There is St. Leger," he said to me suddenly, as a man in the last boat rose and surveyed the shore. I could not see at that

distance what manner of man he was, save that he seemed not above middle height.

As the *bateaux* approached the beach a cheer rang down the lines, and a greeting salvo was fired. The boat which bore the commander shot in between the others, and St. Leger was the first to land. The baronet and Claus pressed forward to meet him. I saw that my father was trembling, and knew how strong was his desire to run and clasp the hand of his old comrade. Just then St. Leger turned toward us. His eyes fell upon my father, and an expression of doubt and amazement that changed to one of pleasure swept across his face.

"Jack Aubrey?—By my faith, it is!" he cried, and came forward with both hands outstretched.

"Barry!" I heard my father say, and while the two were exchanging greetings I had a chance to observe the man whose name had been familiar to me since my earliest recollection.

His face was cleanly shaven, and had evidently once been handsome, but lines of dissipation had played havoc with his good looks. However, there was still a genial expression about his eyes and mouth, and his manner was extremely engaging. His air was every whit that of a soldier, though his figure was a trifle too corpulent.

His reception of me was most gracious.

"I shall like you first for your father's sake," he said, "and later I know I shall for your own."

As I thanked him earnestly I caught, over his shoulder, the eyes of Sir John Johnson upon me, and the look in them gave me food for much thought.

A company of the "Greens" was detailed to escort St. Leger to his quarters within the fort. As he was leaving he waved his hand to my father and called out:

"Till to-night!"

"He has changed, Wilton, sadly," said my father to me, as we wandered toward our rooms in the blockhouse. "It's drink. That's the whole cause. You can see it in his face."

I hardly knew what reply to make, and so was silent. My father seemed not to

notice my reticence, for presently he exclaimed :

"But he's the same at heart!" This thought appeared to cheer him, and he was quite gay over our midday luncheon.

I assisted my father in making such simple arrangements as were possible for the entertainment of his guest that evening. We brightened with wild flowers and fresh green boughs the larger of the two rooms in which we were quartered. We sweetened the place with the strewn needles of the pine, and by fastening blankets on the rough chairs Schroepel had fashioned for us contrived comfortable seats. We added to our store of pitch knots, and got out the one candle that still remained. Two of the three bottles of old Hollands which my father treasured were also produced, and a pair of small silver pocket flasks set forth in lieu of drinking cups.

I had just induced my father to go within to escape the heavy dewfall, and the mist that was creeping up from the river, when St. Leger arrived, accompanied by two soldiers whom he dismissed at the door. I tarried but a few moments, and then, leaving the old comrades together, blanket on arm climbed to the linden top. Here, where all the boisterous evening noise of the encampment was but a murmur, I gave myself up to thoughts of Margaret, and dreams that somehow all would turn out well. Ere long I fell asleep, to waken with a start and the consciousness that some strange sound had roused me. As I sat up, an owl hooted above my head, and flew blunderingly away toward the adjacent woods. Though by no means superstitious, the presence of this bird of ill omen gave me a creepy feeling, and I descended from the tree as quickly as the darkness would permit. When I reached the blockhouse St. Leger was on the point of taking his leave, and I perceived that both he and my father were somewhat under the influence of the strong Hollands.

My father immediately proposed that we accompany the commander to the fort entrance, and though I feared the night air for him I saw that opposition to his wishes would not be wise.

"Well, my young friend," said St. Leger to me familiarly as we set out, "I have everything all arranged for you and your father."

"He has been too good, too generous," my father broke in.

"Hush up, Jack!" cried the commander.

"Yes," continued St. Leger; "you see your father was formerly an officer in the king's service, and was forced by ill health to give up his commission. Now, inasmuch as he is familiar with army tactics, I attach him to my staff as one of my aides. I feel empowered to do this as I have full command of the expedition. A number of officers with me do not serve under me regularly, but have enlisted, or have been specially appointed. With you, a civilian, the case is different, so I propose to employ you as my secretary to relieve Lieutenant Hamilton, who is now acting in that capacity. Though it is likely that I shall call on you for other duties, you may, if you please, consider yourself my secretary. Your father tells me you are well fitted to fill such a post."

To the last of this speech, all of which was delivered in the bombastic manner of one half in liquor, I replied that I should endeavor to prove myself worthy of my father's commendation. I also thought it fitting that I should express my gratitude, but he cut me short by launching into an exposition of his plans for sweeping down the Mohawk, seeming to take it for granted that the garrison at Fort Stanwix would speedily agree to such terms as he chose to offer them. I was thankful that he did not question me on this point, or upon the probability of armed resistance to his march to Albany, for in his heated condition my opinion, had I spoken otherwise than most guardedly, might not have been pleasantly received.

We bade the commander good-night at the fort entrance. I had not, since my mother's death, seen my father in such high spirits as he was after our return to the blockhouse. This was in part due to the stimulant he had taken, in part to his meeting with the friend of his youth, and in part

to the prospect of engaging in what, from his point of view, was to be a triumphant campaign.

I noticed that the excitement of the evening had made him feverish, but comforted myself with the thought that this condition would doubtless pass off as soon as he fell asleep. I heard him tossing and muttering, and was considering the advisability of giving him such a potion as I had administered the night previous, when he grew quiet, and presently I heard him breathing like one in slumber, though with an occasional catch, as though there was something in his throat. Then I slipped away into unconsciousness.

(*To be continued.*)

Toward dawn I started suddenly upright. What I had been dreaming I never could recall, but I found myself in a cold perspiration, as though my visions had been harrowing. From my father's room came a faint spasmodic gasping. I tossed off the blanket, groped for the tinder-box, lit the stub of our last candle, and sprang to the door between the two rooms. A cry of terror and horror escaped my lips. Blood dabbled the blankets of my father's bed, a little red stream was trickling from one side of his mouth, his eyes were fixed and protruding, and on his face was the livid hue that accompanies death by strangulation.

SILK-MAKING IN FRANCE.

BY VISCOUNT GEORGE D'AVENEL.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE FRENCH "REVUE DES DEUX MONDES."

IN its aristocratic age silk was made by an *élite* of artists and worn by an *élite* of wealth. It has to-day become common, and for woman, who does not live by bread alone but also by her toilet, the democratizing of the silk gown, that symbol of ancient wealth, produces the illusion of a similarity of costume which is very sweet to the feminine heart. But the uniformity is only apparent since there are silks from a hundred dollars a yard down to ten cents a yard. What fascinates the masses is not the intrinsic value of a material; it is the idea of luxury connected with the material.

In the making of cheap silks our domestic silkworms play a small part. For the innumerable and mysterious substances with which the silk becomes loaded in the dyeing constitute a good proportion of the weight of cheap textures, or the manufacturer combines in one the silks of Asia and the cotton of America. The production of silks, including the coarsest waste that was for a long time useless, is estimated on the surface of the globe at over eighty-four million pounds a year, of which China produces thirty-eight million pounds and France only three million. These tens of thousands of

yards of silky threads remained formerly in the places of their origin. And even to-day China, Japan, Indo-China, or the English Indies, Central Asia, and Turkey keep the greater part of their product for their own use. Europe and America, on the contrary, consume much more than they produce. France in particular imports twenty-four million pounds of silk—about half of what is moved by commerce in the world every year—but she does not use all this. By the side of her silk industry a very vast traffic is going on in her territory which feeds the factories of Switzerland, Germany, Russia, or America. The seat of this traffic is Lyons.

It is interesting to notice how this silk industry is watched in both hemispheres; how the persons concerned follow it day by day in its laborious processes, from the moment when the eggs of the worm are gathered to the moment when the new spinnings come to increase the stocks of the previous year. By the side of the telegrams which inform everybody about the daily movement of the custom-houses, about the purchase and sale of large estates, and the prices of the chief commodities, are found other dispatches

which announce how the silkworms' digestion was yesterday, indicating that in Japan they eat with good appetite, in India they appear melancholy, and in Italy the breeding is going on regularly, but that in France some hindrance to the activities of the worms is greatly deplored.

Nor must the more or less active sale of the manufactured goods be lost sight of, for it is the caprice of a group of pretty Parisian women, combined with the busy imaginations of some fashionable tailors, which will decide if the weaker sex of this planet during the next season shall be clothed in satin, taffeta, and gauze, to the great profit of the silk industry, or if, on the contrary, the women shall dress in cloth, mohair, or even linen. So that the investigating eye of the wholesale merchant must reach everything, from the insect which has just hatched in China to the new fashion which has just hatched in Paris.

My feminine readers will probably be astonished to learn that their gowns, which appear dry, are one tenth water. This statement must not make those who are afraid of moisture take a notion to dress themselves exclusively in wool, for wool has still more moisture. To take away this remnant of water which the silk derives from the atmosphere the silk has to be placed in a drying room heated to one hundred and fifteen degrees centigrade. At the end of half an hour it comes out dry enough for purposes of commerce.

After the drying, twenty skeins five hundred yards long are unwound and their average weight in grams constitutes the grade or the "number" of that silk. If it is China silk, which is poorly spun, the weight varies sometimes from one skein to the other as much as three hundred per cent.

But these irregularities have not prevented the products of the East from taking the first place in our market. Out of one hundred pounds which arrive in Lyons, fifty-seven come directly from farthest Asia, the greater part of it from Japan, seventeen pounds from Italy, and only twelve pounds are produced in France. The introduction of these foreign silks has caused the pros-

perity of one of our finest national industries. It is this which has caused the reduction in the price and stimulated a whole class of new buyers. In fact, while we go to the other side of the globe to get the larger part of the threads to supply our looms, a part of the silks produced in France goes to foreign countries.

Besides the domestic butterflies, the producers of our plush and damask, which we warm and care for and doctor as long as they are necessary for our needs, there exists in a savage state in Africa, in Asia, in America an incalculable number of lepidoptera, manufacturers of silk, living isolated or in groups. There are some in the parks around Paris and even on the trees of our boulevards. Almost all of their cocoons, many of which cannot be unwound, remain at random under shelter or in crevices, furnished with thick hair into which they have been woven. There is here, perhaps, a very rich mine which the next century will undertake to work. Let us not forget that in our day until the means of spinning the waste had been discovered it was regarded as absolutely unfit for spinning; but at present it furnishes one third of the total amount consumed.

Will not the classical worm of the mulberry tree find other rivals than his insignificant relatives? Will not man take a notion to do without him and to create silk himself? A society was formed at Lyons twelve years ago for the purpose of transforming by a simple process a common textile into imitation of silk. The idea of such a project then appeared quite comical. However, artificial silk has existed since 1889. A former pupil of the Polytechnic School, Count Chardonnet, contrived the vegetable succedaneum which visitors at the World's Exposition saw manufactured before their eyes. The idea had passed through the mind of Réaumur, but the invention was new none the less. By a mixture of sulphuric and nitric acid a common wood paste is changed into nitro-cellulose, which in turn is dissolved in a bath of alcohol and ether. Thus is obtained a thick collodion which is spun by appropriate ma-

chines and becomes as solid as silk does after it has left the stomach of the caterpillar. This silk when dyed and woven possesses all the appearance of the real thing. It even has a brilliancy superior to the real, but it does not possess all the good qualities. It was accused of being terribly inflammable and skeins of it decomposed at the end of a short time and fell in dust, setting free nitrous vapors.

These attempts to reduce the cost of silk when it is already selling for \$3.00 a pound would have seemed incredible to the lords and ladies of the fourteenth century who paid from \$40 to \$60 a pound for raw silk. But it was most frequently under the form of textiles that silk arrived from the East. The first French silk workers were the children of charity placed by the consulate as apprentices in the houses of Italian masters whom our kings brought from Genoa, Bologna, or Venice or who were banished from their homes by the internal wars of Italy. Now the natives of southern France have gradually taken possession of the industry and have so powerfully stamped it as their own that none of their rivals in the world have been able for three centuries to take from them the first place.

At the time when everything came to us from Italy—intellect, jewels, operas, fine pictures, and beautiful women—at the time that Polichinello crossed the mountains, Lyons simply copied Italy, and it was even accused of copying her badly. Then came French taste. The luxurious court of Valois, passionately fond of everything that could refine life, had much to do with this. The seductive Margaret of France and her sister-in-law, Catherine de Medici, who dressed superbly, may be counted as the beginners of Parisian elegance. Under these influences the art of weaving gradually grew with us and in the seventeenth century Lyons conquered for herself the sovereignty in the manufacture and ornamentation of silk.

It is not the fall in the price of raw silk which has produced the cheapness of the material in our day. This fall was compensated for by the general rise in wages during

the century. Now into the price per yard there enter much more wages than silk. Out of seventy-six million dollars' worth of goods woven at Lyons every year the raw silk costs only twenty-two millions; all the rest, except a few millions spent for cotton and wool, represents the wages of the three hundred thousand laborers of both sexes and the profits of the employers.

To understand the silk industry it is necessary to go back farther than the cocoon, farther than the worm, and even to the egg. For forty years silk-culture in France has had a heroic struggle. During the first half of the century the production of cocoons had increased sixfold in France, and six million feet of mulberry trees had been planted. But in a short time the profits of the eggs progressively diminished. Had the breedings been carried on to excess? Our breeders were powerless against the sudden and mysterious falling off. They brought eggs from Italy, from Spain, and from Turkey, but the epidemic went on increasing. Discouragement seized the farmers. The business was becoming ruinous, for the price of an ounce of eggs was excessive and the product very small. The production in France which had been four million pounds fell in 1860 to six hundred thousand. Then came the immortal discovery of Pasteur.

It was found that the insect was suffering from different infirmities, diseases of the skin, or of the stomach, the latter caused by bad feeding. And after having cared for the worm it was necessary to care for the mulberry trees. But the most serious of these troubles resulted from a microbe shut up in the egg, which was born at the same time with the worm, grew inside of him, and killed him. It was by a selection of the eggs, therefore, that the regeneration of the race was effected. A new industry had for its object the furnishing of eggs coming from nimble, vigorous insects, that quickly went about their work, whose stomachs, subjected to a microscopical analysis, had been found free from unhealthy germs. This method has given surprising results. Our southern provinces, far from being dependent on for-

oreign countries for their silkworms, supplied for a time all Europe. Even Japan buys her silkworm eggs from France, and her production has more than doubled in ten years. These select eggs are much more profitable than the old ones. An ounce of eggs which formerly furnished thirty-six pounds of cocoons to-day gives eighty-eight pounds.

Although the insect passes for fastidious and even exclusive in the matter of food it adapts itself to almost all kinds of verdure. It has been raised on the leaves of the linden, the birch, the lilac, and the cherry tree. Only it does not like to change its rations. Even if the mulberry be substituted for lilac during the time of fattening the worm would rather die of hunger than to touch it. The reason why we persist in serving mulberry leaves to these caterpillars rather than the leaves of other trees is that the leaves of the former produce a much finer quality of silk. Therefore this foliage sells very dear—as high as \$4.00 per hundred pounds in some years. The \$26 that the silk producer has to pay for this item, added to the \$1.50 that the ounce of eggs costs him, absorbs the larger part of the \$32 that he may receive as an average from an ounce of eggs.

The thread begun by the insect must be finished by man. Everywhere except in China the cocoons as soon as taken from the branches of trees have to be smothered. To take away from the chrysalis all desire to take flight by breaking open its case, which it would damage thus in the most hopeles manner, it is asphyxiated by vapor and its envelope is dried in lofts until it is sent to the spinners. Formerly every producer unwound his silk himself, and often the result was bad. The fiber of the cocoon as we know is much more fragile than the slenderest of all our threads. To weave it in its native state would require magic looms and fairy fingers. When eight cocoon threads are combined they are only half as thick as sewing silk. So that one of your gowns, ladies, if it is of pure silk, represents, by the twelve or fourteen yards that it takes, the work of thirteen hundred conscientious silkworms.

Four cocoons are unrolled at a time. The four threads are crossed together to form the raw silk of commerce. Since 1805, when the machine was employed for this work, all sorts of inventions have constantly perfected the workmanship. The rustic pot of warm water into which the countryman of the previous century plunged his cocoons to cook them in order to facilitate the unwinding has been displaced by hundreds of basins, each of which spins on four sides, that is, sixteen cocoons are unwound in it at once. Thanks to the division of labor each worker produces not five ounces of silk per day as formerly, but one pound per day.

In spite of all effort, in spite of four million francs of subsidy, paid by the government to this industry, it remains precarious. Its progress in all other countries is rapid. Thus our French silks are running the risk of losing in a future not far off the superiority which perfect workmanship assured them in all the markets of the globe.

The last stage that the skeins pass through is dyeing. It has been charged that the marvels of color produced in the silk are ephemeral and that the charm is reached at the expense of durability. What difference does it make if a new attraction is offered, a present satisfaction possessed by such beings of a day as we are, if it procures a quarter of an hour, even a minute of pleasure?

A workman of Saint Étienne has constructed a card pattern of four thousand shades, and the realization of this has in it nothing improbable. The innumerable, unheard-of tints that nature invents without ceasing, in the skies or on the seas, or with which she covers plants and clothes the beasts, are here noted, imitated, and classified. There is not a rose color, not a blue, not a green, which this dictionary has failed to produce, from the most pronounced to the most delicate.

At the same time that the weaving industry passes from the city to the village it passes from men to women. Is not the shuttle the natural implement of the weak, especially since the perfection of appliances

that make it accessible to the weaker sex? Mechanical weaving is gradually monopolizing the larger part of the production. At present it employs twenty-five thousand looms, each of which is equivalent to three hand looms.

On leaving the loom the goods receive additional treatments. Some go to be smoothed upon blades of cutting metal. This is called the polishing. Others are subjected to a "singeing" by a mixture of air and gas at the rate of one thousand cubic meters an hour, to take away their nap. White satin passes on rollers three times before a long row of illuminated gas jets. The whole is ended by what is called "pinching," in which a machine pulls out the threads which come out on the wrong side of the texture, and by the "scouring" of the light textiles in order to take out the spots produced in the course of manufacture.

The figured, brocaded, and laminated silks are produced by particular processes in the weaving. The great manufacturers of Lyons maintain designing rooms in which five or six artists work for them by the year, not to speak of designs for which \$30 or \$40 are paid to designers outside. The sketch, the first outline of the figure, is drawn upon a card and reproduces the size and form that it will have in the textile, on paper finely marked off into squares, each square representing a thread. This precision is necessary in order that the operator may mathematically puncture the cardboards of the Jacquard loom.

Even with the ordinary loom the general character of the textile may be remarkably varied. By multiplying the shuttles the "chameleon" silks may be obtained, the woof of which is formed by threads of any color striping one after the other a plain warp. But to incorporate into a piece of goods the most insignificant little flower it was necessary that at each point woven there come, in continually unequal numbers, the shaded threads whose juxtaposition should constitute the stem, the petals, and the cup of the flower; and to cause these threads to come they had to be pulled, and this "puller of colors," the necessary

helper of the weaver, was in his turn guided in his work by a child who sang from morning till night in a monotonous voice the movement of the shuttles, "one blue, two red, one green," etc. Since the invention of the Jacquard machine the threads come in and play their part at the moment and in the number wished for. They come lengthwise if the design is made by the warp, crosswise if it is made by the woof, as in damasks, in which the wrong side shows the negative of what appears on the face of the texture. For in this machine the threads of the warp receive, by a ratchet movement, the impulsion of an equal number of needles. The points of these needles are grazed by cardboards pierced with holes, which revolve upon a cylinder. If they meet the holes they pass through and thus call the threads into play. If they are stopped by a smooth part of the card they remain motionless. The process is nearly of the same sort as that by which airs are played mechanically upon the piano, or operas are ground out by a hand-organ.

These aristocratic products, the glory of the industry of Lyons, have naturally a limited sale, but they are not on the decline. The dearest textile whose price I have found from the Middle Ages up to our day, among the hundreds of materials worn by princes and sovereigns of seven centuries, is a cloth of gold for which Louis XIV. paid \$83 per yard in actual money in order to cut out of it for himself a dressing gown in 1670. Last summer I was shown at Lyons a silk fabric with a white background ornamented with flowers, birds, and leaves in relief, ordered by the empress of Germany, who first proposed to make a costume out of it but will now simply use it for a veil. It cost \$120 a yard, and the design of it cost \$20.

But there are also silks for thirty cents a yard. They are not so beautiful, but they make more people happy. To the moralist who might judge that silk is less useful than wool, who might even esteem it rather superfluous, there would hardly be any paradox in replying that the things which the people are most anxious about are precisely those which are of no use to them.

FROM CLEVELAND TO MCKINLEY IN THE WHITE HOUSE.

BY JOHN W. HARDWICK.



From a photograph by C. M. Bell.

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PRESIDENT GROVER CLEVELAND.

DURING the morning of the 4th of March next Mrs. Cleveland will send her children and her trunks to the Arlington or to the residence of Secretary Lamont, or to whatever hotel or house of a friend she may select as a stopping place after she leaves the executive mansion. In the meantime she will have packed her books and bric-a-brac, her pictures and other personal effects that have accumulated during the last four years, and will ship them to her new home in Princeton. The president's secretaries and clerks will gather together his private letters and the private records of his office, leaving only what may

be considered official documents on file, and prepare them in large chests for shipment. The records of the White House are filed away by fiscal years. Each year has its books and file cases properly prepared and printed.

There is a difference of opinion as to what are private and what are official records, but the president is allowed to decide that for himself. When Mr. Johnson left the White House he carried off with him nearly every scrap of writing that had accumulated during his term, and when General Grant came in he found the files as bare as old Mother Hubbard's pantry. There was a

good deal of criticism in Congress and in official circles, but Senator Hamlin expressed public sentiment when he said: "The papers were of no value anyway except as historical records, and the less his-

fine engravings that have been presented from time to time and have been left in the rooms. The library is an excellent one. It contains well-selected cases of works of reference, history, and general literature, and



From a photograph by C. M. Bell

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MRS. GROVER CLEVELAND

tory has to say about President Johnson the better."

The furniture, the china, the silverware, the linen, and everything else in the White House that has been purchased with public money belongs to the government, and it is thoroughly and handsomely furnished, although during a residence of four years the president's wife receives many presents and purchases many little things to increase the comfort and luxury of the place for which she would not care to make a requisition upon the treasury. The pictures upon the walls are mostly portraits of former presidents and their wives, but there are some

many of the presidents have allowed to remain upon the shelves presentation copies of volumes that have been sent them by the authors. These include novels, narratives of travel, sketches, poems, and even sermons, usually handsomely bound and appropriately inscribed.

Under the law the building and its contents are in charge of the superintendent of public buildings and grounds, who is selected from the engineer corps of the army and now happens to be Col. John M. Wilson, who served in a similar capacity during the previous term of President Cleveland, and to the public as well as to the officials

is the most satisfactory functionary who has ever filled that place. He also has supervision of the Washington Monument, the parks throughout the city, and the propagating gardens where the trees and flowers that decorate the public grounds are raised.

Colonel Wilson's immediate assistant is Colonel Crook, who has been in office a great many years. He dates way back to the time of President Lincoln, and was originally detailed from the army as a sort of quartermaster-sergeant to assist in regulating the internal affairs of the president's house. He is the purchasing agent and quartermaster. He buys whatever is needed, audits the bills, and disburses the money, although the books are kept in Colonel Wilson's office in the War Department and the latter is responsible to Congress for all expenditures. If the president wants a new chair or a dictionary or if Mrs. Cleveland wants the piano tuned or soap for the bath-room they notify Colonel Crook. He makes out a requisition on the regular blanks that are provided for that purpose, and it is sent to the proper store in town to be filled. When the goods come Colonel Crook inspects them, certifies that the purchases "are proper and necessary," that the articles "are received in good order," and that "the prices are just and reasonable." Then the bill goes over to be paid.

Under Colonel Crook is a steward, Mr. Sinclair, a mulatto who has lived with the president ever since he was governor of New York, and was brought from the executive mansion in Albany to the executive mansion in Washington when Mr. Cleveland moved down in 1885. He has charge of the affairs of the kitchen and dining-room. He receives his orders from Mrs. Cleveland, but is paid \$1,200 a year by the government, and receives his money from Colonel Crook. If anything is wanted in the kitchen or the laundry in the way of "permanent fixtures" they are purchased by the government. This means a teakettle or a saucepan or a new set of forks or napkins; but the food that is consumed is paid for by the president. He also pays the cook, the laundress, the chambermaid, and the butler

in the dining-room. The rest of the staff of servants and attendants are on the official pay-roll. They include doorkeepers, ushers, watchmen, clerks, gardeners, firemen, etc. A stable is furnished by the government, but the president has to provide and feed his own horses, buy his own carriage, and pay the wages of his coachman and footman. The entire cost of the private servants in the White House is not less than \$2,500 a year, and often reaches \$3,000. The steward acts as paymaster for the grocermen and butchers, for he makes all the purchases for the kitchen and dining-room, but Colonel Crook attends to the president's private affairs and pays the servants.

Most of the servants in the White House hold over from the Harrison administration. Some of them date back to President Arthur's time. The clerks in the official part of the house are under the civil service rules. The president cannot remove his own stenographer except for "cause" and he could not appoint his own son to that position unless he stood at the head of the eligible list of stenographers who had passed the examination and placed their names upon the books of the civil service commission. This does not apply to the cook or to the chambermaid or to any other of the private servants of the household, but they are generally allowed to remain unless the wife of the outgoing president has become attached to them and wants to take them away with her, or the wife of the incoming president brings other servants from her former home.

Major McKinley will have to get a new steward as President Harrison did, for although Mr. Sinclair appreciates the dignity and feels the responsibility of his place he will undoubtedly leave the White House with his present master, with whom he has been so long. When the president was a bachelor Sinclair acted as his valet, and always went with him on excursions, fishing trips, and official journeys, packing his trunk and looking after his clothes and shoes and fixing the buttons in his shirt every morning. The latter duty is said to have originated in an interesting incident. Soon after his in-



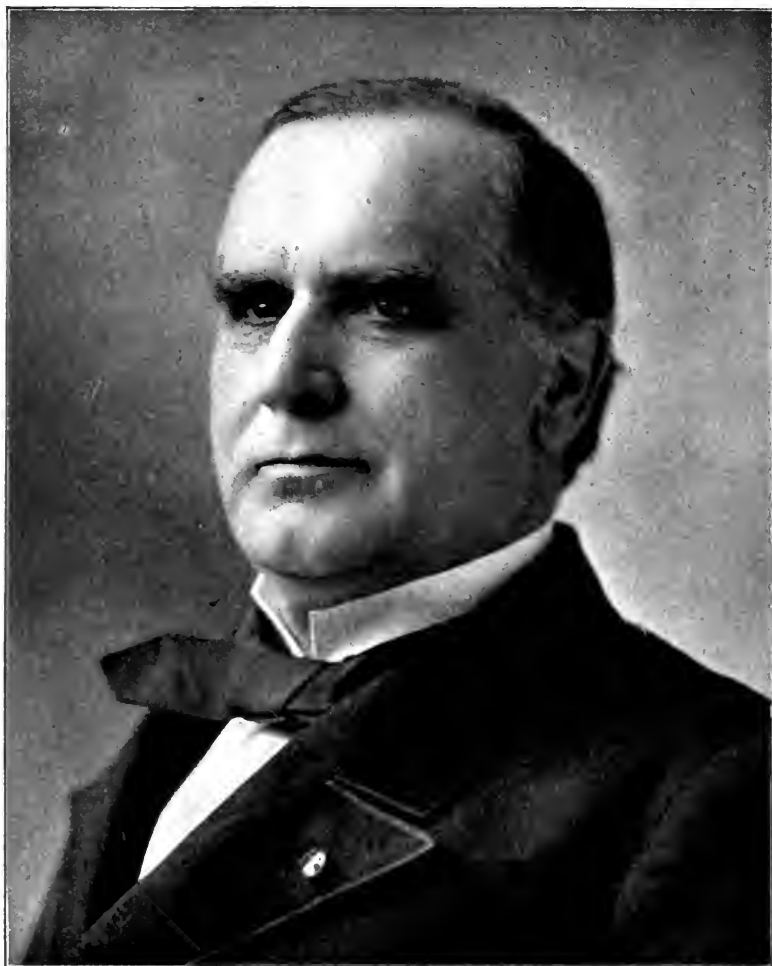
EAST FRONT OF THE UNITED STATES CAPITOL.

auguration for the first time President Cleveland arranged to go down the Potomac on a fishing expedition and was to start very early in the morning. The ever watchful Sinclair was about the house betimes, and saw the president's breakfast properly placed upon the table, but no one came down to eat it. Fearing that his master might be late the faithful steward went to his bedroom to rouse him. As he entered that apartment he found the chief magistrate of the greatest nation on earth lying on the floor, half dressed, poking around under the bed with a cane. He looked up impatiently as the steward entered the room, and said, "Sinclair, my collar-button has rolled under the bed. I wish you would see if you can get it." From that morning Sinclair was always on hand to assist the president in dressing, and Mr. Cleveland has found him a great comfort.

The White House cook was formerly employed at John Chamberlain's famous restaurant. She is an old colored woman with a

talent for making good things, and is very popular with the president's family. But when he gives a state dinner the menu is furnished by a caterer who has served the White House in a similar capacity for many years. General Arthur was the only president whose state dinners were cooked in the White House kitchen. He had one of the best cooks in the country, a Frenchman whom he brought from New York. But the salary he demanded was more than Mr. Cleveland wanted to pay and he retired to open a restaurant in this city.

President McKinley and his wife may not find the White House too small for them because they have no children, but there is really very little room in the private part. The dining-room and pantry are on the ground floor at the right of the main entrance. The kitchen, laundry, and accommodations for the servants are in the basement, which is made as comfortable as possible, but the walls are damp during the rainy season and it is not a fit place to sleep.



PRESIDENT ELECT WILLIAM MCKINLEY.

Most of the White House servants prefer to lodge elsewhere, and some of them have families and homes of their own. On the living floor the rooms are large and well lighted, with high ceilings, although they are as few in number as those of a New York flat. There are only four bedrooms for the accommodation of the president's family, although a dressing-room connected with the chamber on the northwest corner of the house was fitted up with a little bed for Baby McKee under the Harrison administration and is now used as a sleeping-room for the Cleveland children. The only other living-room in the private part is a splendid great oval library which President Arthur used for an executive office, and Mr. Cleveland also during his first term. But when the Harrisons moved in there were so many of them that the president surrendered the library for use as a family sitting-room and moved his desk out into the office that had formerly been occupied by the private secretary. Shortly after her marriage Mrs. Cleveland added what is equivalent to another room by fitting up the western end of the long corridor with couches and tables and easy chairs and shutting it off with a couple of high screens. This is the "cozy nook" of the house and is used

by the Cleveland children as a play-room. This corridor is connected with the official part of the White House by great glass doors, and people passing up to the president's office have often heard the sweet voices of his children at play.

Mrs. Cleveland therefore does not have as much room as many an ordinary housewife in a village town. She cannot have more than one guest at a time because there is no place to accommodate them.

Although the White House is a splendid

was to erect a private residence for the president on the outskirts of the city, and he selected a splendid site, but the jealousy of real estate speculators defeated the bill in Congress. Mrs. Harrison, who felt the need of room and a home life more than any recent occupant of the White House, proposed to erect an exact duplicate of the present building facing the Potomac and connected with it by a covered colonnade, so that the present structure might be used exclusively for official purposes, the new



MRS. WILLIAM M'KINLEY

old structure with a classic façade, and built of most excellent material, it is not suitable for the home of the president, and Congress should appropriate money for an improvement of some kind. There are several plans proposed. President Arthur's plan

one as a private residence, and both might be thrown open for formal entertainments, because the population of Washington is now so large that the president's evening receptions are too crowded for comfort. It is getting so bad that ladies will not wear

their best gowns and jewels to the White House, although of course they ought to do so out of respect to the man who lives there. They complain that if they do they are likely to be torn and soiled, and sometimes ruined in the crush. It is impossible for the president to serve refreshments at these entertainments for there is no room for that purpose. The state dining-room is fitted up as a cloak-room for ladies, and the private dining-room as one for gentlemen. There is no other place for them to leave their wraps. When the president gives a state dinner the men have the private dining-room as a cloak-room and the women leave their wraps in one of the bed rooms up stairs.

It is customary to allow every president to renew the furniture and carpets and the decorations if he desires to do so, but it has been a long time since there was a general overhauling. The present furniture and decorations date from President Arthur's time. It was he who made the White House a modern building and added adornments of an artistic character. When he came there it was a gloomy old barrack, with ugly walls and inappropriate carpets and furniture that did not fit either. Being a man of exquisite taste and a keen sense of the fitness of things he asked for an appropriation to fit up the interior of the president's house in a suitable manner, and made it very attractive.

Before Mrs. Cleveland leaves the White House on inauguration day she will provide a bountiful lunch to be served upon the return of the presidential party from the Capitol. This party will consist of the outgoing president and his cabinet and their wives, and the incoming president and his intimate friends. With the McKinleys there will be the Hannas, the Herricks, Judge Day and wife of Canton, the brother and sister of the president elect, the rest of

their relatives, and a few other intimate friends. Mrs. Cleveland will also see that dinner is provided for, although she will herself leave the house immediately after the luncheon.

There was a good deal of talk eight years ago because Mrs. Cleveland forgot these necessary courtesies when her husband left the executive mansion at the end of his first term. She moved out the day before the inauguration and went over to New York, so that there was nobody there to look after things except the men folks and they forgot that it was customary to give the incoming president and his family an informal luncheon. So that when the Harrisons got back from the Capitol there was not a mouthful to eat in the house. It was a cold, stormy day. They had taken an early breakfast, had been sitting for a long time watching the ceremonies, and then, passing out from the hot Senate chamber to the inaugural platform on the east portico, became thoroughly chilled, so they were not only hungry but half frozen. The chief usher ran over to a neighboring restaurant and ordered a luncheon sent in. It was a long time coming, but all the more welcome when it arrived. Mrs. Cleveland afterward apologized for her oversight, saying that she supposed the matter would be attended to by the steward; but the steward was busy with Mr. Cleveland's luggage.

Mrs. McKee served a beautiful luncheon for Mrs. Cleveland four years later, and the latter will undoubtedly do the proper thing this year in honor of Mrs. McKinley. Therefore when Mrs. McKinley goes to the White House from the inauguration ceremonies at the Capitol she will find luncheon spread in the private dining-room, with something warm to eat and drink, and Mrs. Cleveland will sit at the head of the table there for the last time.

THE SCIENCE OF THE MORNING FAST.

BY EDWARD HOOKER DEWEY, M. D.

II.

THE EVOLUTION OF DISEASE: A THEORY.

IT may be stated with almost exact truth that every human being is born with certain structural weaknesses, local or general. Constitutional tendency to disease is the common, less definite expression of the same idea. These unfortunate ancestral legacies determine the constitutional power as the weakest link of the chain, and were a perfect physiological life possible its limit would be determined by them, and with the accuracy of a moment. They are the always unknown, unknowable possibilities of disease, and by no human means can they become less than possibilities. They always are and must be the ambushed enemies of the body, mind, and soul. Before the first breath is drawn it is determined that there shall be headaches, kidney, liver, lung, stomach, skin, or heart disease; before the first breath it is determined whether there shall be simply low spirits or the fury of mania; whether life is to be endured in the madhouse or behind grated doors; whether death shall be from despair or at the rope's end. Of all ancestral legacies those which are located in the moral or intellectual centers are the most unfortunate, for they determine beyond all possible human reversal whether there may be moral or intellectual wreckage, even as it is determined that there shall be tastes, poetical, musical, mechanical, etc., that may be cultivated but can neither be given nor taken away.

These legacies determine from what we are to suffer, from what weakness or disease we are to die, and violated law determines the time when it shall occur.

In parts structurally weak at birth all the tissues are in a lax, flabby condition; the blood-vessels, from lack of tone of the contractile fiber, are larger through distension

than in parts normal, hence all between structures are subjected from the first to a degree of abnormal, strangling pressure, that, duly increased by inflammation, causes death and suppuration of parts involved, even in masses, as in gangrene.

The circulation is slower through the dilated vessels; this favors the escape of the water of the blood when impoverished by disease. The veins of the feet and limbs in old age, and in cases of marked debility from disease, become distended into elongated sacs, the water of the blood easily escapes from the thin walls into the cellular tissue, and at times there is such tension of the skin from the accumulation that there will be a bursting through.

In every possible physiological and anatomical sense these legacies are the born possibilities of disease, of which time and culture are the operative factors. We are not born asthmatics, rheumatics, criminals, or lunatics. In every possible case of so-called chronic disease, whether upon the skin, in the throat, bronchial tubes, of the bones, or in the depths of organs, or at the very centers of life, there are always the faint hints, the whispering, the muttering, the gathering clouds, the blackness of accumulated wrath, and finally the flashing bolt. There is something of such a history behind every possible disease to which human flesh is heir. There is no sudden attack of disease, ever, in the sense generally believed. In the happy faces of childhood or youth there seem few possibilities of disease, very little to indicate the maniac, the wrecker of banks, the deliberate destroyer of human life. Behind each and all there is an unwritten history that may be read by those who can see within as well as without. The born structural weakness is the initial possibility, with the avoidable cause playing a far larger part than is generally apprehended.

Parental ignorance, general ignorance that there is even an alphabet of nutrition, is black with heathenism. There is not even a hazy idea that digestion is chemistry, with its exactions and its moral, mental, and physical conditions, that there is a hunger of disease that food never satisfies, and that there is a starvation from over-feeding that has in its wake disease, moral and intellectual wreckage, and death.

The evil work begins in the nursery, where there is no limit to the feedings or resulting end to the woes of restlessness, fretfulness, disease, and death. There are no human lives that can be made so perfectly peaceful as infantile lives, and yet if the end of the first year is reached with apparent health it will be due to an inherent strength of constitution.

The first step in every disease is the first morsel of food that fails to be fully digested. This results in an instant loss of general tone, with weak parts most affected. The vessels enlarge, with resulting strangling pressure on between structures, and in time a morbid condition called disease is reached, to be named, according to locality and character, as bronchial catarrh, asthma, rheumatism, eczema, etc. They all have a clearly ascertainable evolutionary history that does not involve a germ theory of origin or a germ treatment for relief, and it is barely possible that this is true of acute disease to a far larger extent than is generally believed.

It is barely possible that germs, even the pathogenic, are involved agencies, the scavengers of the wastes of disease, with a purifying mission, as the buzzards and the microbes in external decompositions. There is a clashing of smallpox statistics that is becoming significant, and the virtues of antitoxin have not become overwhelmingly established. Possibly dying and dead tissues, even in human throats, from a still unknown cause make possible, perhaps needful, even pathogenic germs.

THE EVOLUTION OF CURE.

THERE are no subjects of vital importance to man where general knowledge is so hazy

as how disease is caused and cured. The human mind is fond of marvels and very generally demands miracles for the relief of disease. The Syrian leper wanted instant relief and through a striking dramatic performance, not a series of baths. To the average mind disease is an attack that invites a battle of defense; it is rarely considered a curative conflict—a fight for life on the part of nature.

The general conception of the power of remedies to cure disease, even in our centers of culture, is not so very far removed from that which surrounds the medicine lodge of the Digger Indian. A hundred years ago every case of pneumonia demanded the letting out of a quart of blood as the first of curative means. We have our remedies to-day whose need is deemed not less imperative, and yet can we be certain that they are not to be the barbarism of the time to come? The mystery of cell change is unknowable. The curative processes of disease are the same in the Adams of to-day as in the times of Adam the First. But what tremendous evolutions in treatments, and how utterly diverse even to-day for the same disease! Is there no hint of nature in all this?

Every age has had its specifics, its special dispensations, whereby old disease-accounts under a high pressure for immediate settlement are to be abolished by miracles, or through remission rather than expiation. That will be the golden age of living in which the causes of disease will be met at their very inception by a paralyzing specific and life made continuously happy through "salvation by grace" only.

"In danger's stormy hour" faith in means becomes preposterous and therefore too often the sick die deaths of violence. The writer has met this question squarely. Before there was a germ treatment for diphtheria a child son was taken with the disease. The specifics of the time required a holding of the hands, a pinching of the nostrils, a prying open of the mouth, and without thought that the writhings of resistance might not be even balanced by curative results. In this case there was no thought

for one moment of adding the agony of dosage to an ulcerated, bleeding throat, not the slightest faith that dosings so expensively administered could in any possible sense be a support to vital power. And so nature was compelled to win a victory, aided only by the tenderest care administered with the serenest faith that all that could be done she alone could do. And so a treatment was avoided that has become the barbarism of to-day.

Peace hath her victories

No less renowned than war,

and—sometimes—

They also serve who only stand and wait.

How is it to be made clear beyond any question that chronic diseases are evolutions—the harvests of culture? Easily, by demonstrations within the range of the naked eye. Science walks by sight and not by faith.

Let there be a blotched, pimpled face, with dull eyes darkly circled, the skin rough and thrown into folds by dilated veins which spread over the ruddy arteries like a mourner's pall, save where there are the fiery clouds of disease. There are no delicate lines of expression; no cheer, because the windows of the soul are darkened by the dullness, the pallor, the drapery of disease. No human face ever becomes suddenly so involved, and the local expression is the true index of the general condition. How are these structural abnormalities to be reached with the tone of health? By no local means that man has ever devised. Richer blood, toned vessels are clearly the one indication. And as fogs disappear beneath the rising sun in a clear sky, and as grass and flowers grow in springtime, so will new life reach the uttermost cell of every facial tissue with that first meal that ends the needed vacation of the stomach.

The eyes will begin to brighten and the clouds beneath, dark or angry, will begin to fade; sores, pimples, will assume a glow of health as they slowly disappear. The pallor and venous drapery will give way to an arterial ruddiness that may reach the

heights of marbled foreheads. The soul begins to sparkle in the eyes, to beam along delicate lines of expression; gradually the skin becomes cleared from disease and assumes a plush-like softness, with tints that compare as the tints of flowers with the worn colors of the house-painter. The faces of children can be made to reveal the most striking evidences of what artistic work nature is capable when there are unhindered hands. Their flushed, tinted, beaming faces can be made to compare as the fairest peach to the pale, spotted, withered apple. No one has ever seen these pictures except where there is that highest nutrition that only comes through the largest compliance with its laws, and they have to be seen before a true, artistic impression can be made.

Landscape gardening upon the human face is of the very largest practicality, and its interest and delight is heightened by the sense that the same regenerative change goes on in the depths of unknown, unknowable disease; and still more heightened by the sense that there is also regenerative work in the depths of the soul. The tendency is all one way and toward the mental and moral coordination of the more innocent days of childhood and youth. That body, that soul which is aglow with health is the farthest removed from whatever is vile or vicious. And these humanizing changes are possible, in a measure, for all where death is not inevitable. Every human face can be made to reveal culture when the stomach has any power over food.

A few illustrations will be given, drawn from a general practise in which for a score of years there has been no feeding without hunger, even in the severest and most protracted cases of acute disease, and when every case has been watched and studied with keenest interest for evidence of nature's power to right her wrongs without unbidden food, without the severe dosings that are strictly orthodox to-day, only to be the barbarism of to-morrow. Every case has been a line upon a line of scientific evidence of the marvelous power of nature, and not during all time will disease processes

be watched with more interest, with higher faith, and possibly with less harm from dosage. Even where death was inevitable it was righteously presumed that life would hold out longer, and with less suffering, if indigestion were not added to the woes of disease by food no less unbidden than harsh drugs.

A case of asthma will furnish an example of the physics as well as of the science of the curative agency. One year ago Mr. J. J. W. presented himself with a long history of sufferings endured, until later attacks began to cause suggestions of suicide as a means of permanent relief. The ambushed enemies were the lax walls of the smallest bronchial tubes, ever ready to swell into the narrow ways of free air on the smallest provocation. The reader should easily see that the frequent distentions of years had greatly reduced the tone of all elastic tissues and that there would be no rational way of relief but to contract them with the tone of better health, a process not likely to be accomplished by any local means. A railroad conductor, he was duly advised to always rest his whole body before eating, at the end of each trip. A few days of absolute fasting ended with hunger, and a relished meal gave the desired relief, and from thence on there was general improvement. During the year there was a gain of a number of pounds of muscle, almost complete relief from the "attacks" of the disease, and an exceeding, chronic pipe-habit so abolished as to make the odor of the best cigar an offense to a new nasal membrane. There is, possibly, no other way to cure asthma.

Nearly two years ago Mr. C. B. presented himself for a case of chronic sciatic rheumatism. How was this deeply buried nerve to be reached with healing power? From the long range of the stomach it had defied, and for years, the whole pharmacopœia, and was not to be persuaded by the seductive influences of the medicated bath-tub.

In apparent perfect health, and with a stomach that never complained, it was hard at first to comprehend that there was habitual gluttony. He gave heed; in a few months the tender, aching nerve ceased its

plaints, fifteen pounds of new flesh were added, and all desire for both beer and tobacco, long and habitually used, was completely abolished.

Other foundations for temperance no man can build. With the perfect comfort of health there was nothing to be soothed and so tobacco and beer had lost their mission.

During the past summer the Rev. W. E. R., a returned missionary from India, presented his skeleton form for advice. For seven months he had endured ulcerated bowels that refused to heal even under the care of some of the masters in medical science. His last adviser enjoined six daily meals, and during one week of such enterprising feeding there was a loss of five pounds in weight. There had been no thought in this case that bleeding ulcers in the bowels needed as perfect freedom from irritation as would be given if located externally. With a raging appetite and all power of restraint at the table abolished he was slowly starving to death, bleeding to death.

It required only a fast of eight days, aided, perhaps needlessly, by the needle, to relieve pain and morbid hunger, for those ulcers to disappear beneath new membranes. Natural hunger came as abdominal tenderness declined, and after two weeks of feeding, with the greatest pains as to times, quantity, and quality, besides most decided local and general improvement the scales revealed a weight of one hundred and five pounds. Later, under specially favoring conditions, there was a gain of eleven pounds in fourteen days, and on only one general and one light meal daily. In three months the weight increased to about one hundred and forty-five pounds. Estimating the gain of the first two weeks as five pounds there was an addition of about five elevenths to the weight at the end of the fast, and of new tissues as instinct with life as in Adam before the fall. With all these new pounds and the regeneration in the old, this comes very near to being born again. And there has come such a degree of perfect physical comfort, such a sense of reserve mental, moral, and physical power as was never

realized even in his palmiest days, and he will return to his mission field strongly convinced that it is not the climate but unrighteous living that destroys missionary life. The most keenly appreciated gain in this case is the power, so generally lacking, of self-restraint at a well-spread table.

Sometimes wonderful results come from lives redeemed. Miss I., after many years of an ancestral stomach, at last found herself unable to eat solids without resulting torture through an evolution that the masters failed to hinder. Said her distinguished friends, "If this young woman can be cured there are intellectual powers and tastes that will be heard from." It required but a few weeks to restore powers that had become only the dreams of early youth—and her name has since become known in every cultured center on the globe.

There was another young woman, a mother of richly endowed nature, a great soul in the dungeons of Giant Despair. Through the science of the morning fast there came life in reserve; and a National Congress of Mothers is one summing up.

Is there starvation in the morning fast? Not for any family but that of the family physician. There are no deaths ever from starvation, where food could be digested, until the body is reduced to a skeleton. All other deaths may be ascribed to the effects of disease, injury, trouble, despair, or old age on the brain centers.

There is no human ailing where it is not safe to await natural hunger before eating. There is no power equal to a fast that may always be ended with food when hunger comes to restrain or paralyze the hand of disease.

In the old times, before there was a "villainous gunpowder," the "strong man armed" was his own exceeding defense.

For the highest possible reach for human service, whether to wield the sledge or to carry light into the jungles of dark continents, or even to bend low over the couches of the suffering in air heavy with contagion or alive with the bacillus of diphtheria, there must be the health of righteous daily living that there may be continuous power for offense or defense.

A VISIT TO JULES VERNE AND VICTORIEN SARDOU.

BY EDMONDO DE AMICIS.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE ITALIAN "NUOVA ANTOLOGIA."

TO find Verne we went to Amiens, where he stays all the year, two and a half hours from Paris by rail. A letter written by him to my good friend Caponi assured me that his greeting would be more than courteous. This certainly made my old desire, and the desire of the two dear boys who were with me as well, all the more keen to become personally acquainted with the admired and loved author of so many extraordinary journeys. We had never seen even a photograph of him and consequently he was entirely unknown to us outside of his books. On the way we talked about the curious fact that the readers of this living French writer, celebrated as he is, should have so little information about him while of all the others

there are minute, constant, and abundant details, both of their lives and characters. And the mystery surrounding Jules Verne increased our curiosity.

We knocked at the gate of a miniature palace, situated at the entrance of a deserted street in a lordly quarter that seemed void of inhabitants. A woman opened it for us, and made us cross a little garden and enter a room on the ground floor which was full of light. Suddenly Jules Verne appeared, with smiling face and outstretched hands.

If, meeting him without knowing who he was, I had been asked to divine his profession, I would have said he was a retired army general, or a professor of physics and mathematics, or a cabinet officer—never an artist. He does not show the burden of his

almost eighty years, he has somewhat of Verdi's build, with a serious, kindly face, no artist-like vivacity in look or word, very simple manners, the imprint of great sincerity in every fleeting manifestation of feeling and thought, the language, the bearing, the manner of dress of a man who considers appearances of absolutely no account. My first sensation, after the pleasure of seeing him, was one of stupefaction. Apart from the friendly look and the affable demeanor I could recognize nothing in common with the Verne who stood before me and the one that had a place in my imagination. And these words came back to me which a friend of mine at Turin had said, half jestingly, half seriously: "You are going to see Jules Verne? But suppose Jules Verne does not exist! Don't you know that his stories of adventure are by a company of writers who have taken a firm pseudonym?"

My wonder increased when, induced to speak about his works, he spoke of them with an abstracted air, as he would have done of some one else's writings, or rather of things in which entered no merit of his—as he would have spoken of a collection of engravings or coins he had acquired, and with which he occupied himself more from the necessity of doing something than from any passion for the art. Several times at first he tried to turn the conversation from himself to somebody else, and not succeeding in this he made it fall on his two boy callers. But finally he was forced by a direct question to tell of his way of conceiving and writing, and he did this in few words with great simplicity and admirable clearness.

Contrary to what I had thought, he does not first imagine the characters and facts of the novel he is to write, and then begin to make investigations into one or more countries for his scene of action. On the contrary he reads up the history and geography of the countries first, just as if he intended to do nothing else than describe them fully and minutely. His characters, the leading facts and episodes of his story, rise up in his mind during this reading, which is really an object in itself and not a mere means to

acquire useful notes for his book. The varied information regarding physics, chemistry, astronomy, and natural history in which his stories abound he has not needed for many years to look up in scientific works. These were his favorite reading from early youth, and he has his scientific material already in his memory, or selects it out of an enormous amount of facts which he is constantly acquiring from books, reviews, and newspapers. He neglects nothing which pertains to travel, discovery, phenomena, unusual events, or characters, and which he thinks may be useful in any way whatsoever to his future labors.

In regard to the choice of countries which are to be the scenes of his romances he is guided by an idea I was very far from anticipating. His intention is to describe the whole earth in his books and he goes from region to region in a certain predetermined order, not retracing his steps unless through necessity, and then as quickly as possible. He still has many parts of the world left, and has estimated the number of stories he must still write in order to fill out his entire plan. "Shall I have time for them all?" he asked, smiling. He hopes so, as we all do, and in the meantime he does not lose a single day. He writes two novels a year regularly, but gives only one of them to the printers so that they may not come too closely together. In this way he always has some in reserve, waiting their turn. He retires almost every night at eight o'clock. At four in the morning he is already up, and works until noon. This is his manner of life except when he is traveling, and he intends to measure his time in this way so long as he can. "I need to work," he added. "Work has become a vital function for me. If I don't work I don't seem to myself to live."

Verne wanted us to see the whole house. We went up-stairs. Everywhere was there a severe and simple elegance. Nowhere any luxurious furnishings, which he is well able to have since his rights as a dramatist bring in an income sufficient to be considered riches. His study is a singular room, being a study and a bedroom at the same

time. It is very small. In one corner, opposite a large window, is a great work-table with a green table-cloth and covered with books and maps arranged in symmetrical order. In the opposite corner is a small camp bed, narrow and very low, without any hangings. It is on this soldier's couch that Jules Verne has slept from shortly after sunset to the first hours of daylight, winter and summer, for I know not how many years. The room, full of sunshine, opens out on a long solitary passageway, beyond which are seen the towers of the famous cathedral of Amiens. There were some manuscripts on the table which I looked at with much curiosity, sheets covered with compressed lines, written in minute characters, regular and firm, with very few corrections. For Jules Verne, after having used much diligence in preparing his work and after having thought of it for a long time, writes rapidly. When he had gone into his library with my sons his wife, who had joined us soon after our arrival, told me that his health had been somewhat impaired the previous year by an event of which I had not heard. A nephew of his, losing his mind, had attacked him, pistol in hand, and had inflicted a severe wound in his leg, from which he had been ill for a long time.

In the room adjoining the study is a rich collection of books of travel, works of science, and atlases. In one section are collected the various translations of Verne's works, hundreds of volumes of all sizes and in all tongues, among them translations into Arabic and Japanese. Another shelf held all his works in French; "Eighty volumes!" he said with a smile, shaking his head as if he would have said, "Eighty years!" They were arranged according to their dates, one after the other, forming a many-colored, shining squadron, proud and resplendent as a row of banners.

Ah, what memories came back to me as I gazed on that glittering line—memories of the pleasure all those books had given my early youth, and the consolation and rest they had granted my later years! How many dear memories of plans

of travel, of vast and strange dreams made with open eyes after reading one of them, of immense visions of forests, deserts, and oceans, of mountains of ice and mountains of fire, of mysterious solitudes outside of earth's pale, in planetary space, of frightful abysses in sea and land, and cataclysms wonderful and formidable! There sounded in my ears all at once the names of Nemo, Hatteras, Grant, Strogoff, Robur, Krutis—persons mysterious and terrible, inventors of machines prodigious in their effects, discoverers of unknown worlds, victims and heroes of gigantic struggles with nature.

Remembering all these and the multitudinous minor characters and the multifarious details of their adventures, I wondered once again that all this had come out of the mind of that simple, quiet man, leading so peaceful a life, uttering such placid sentiments, and having such calm desires. I could not refrain from expressing to him my thoughts; and no less wonderful and lovable was the simplicity of his answer: "You see," he said "that this great popularity of my writings is mainly due to the fact that I have always proposed, even to the sacrifice of art, not to ever suffer a page or a line to escape from my pen which the boys, for whom I write and whom I love, cannot read."

I asked for his photograph, on which he wrote the pseudonym of the cooperative association which made his works, as my Turin friend would say. His wife remarked that he had forgotten the date, and I begged her to write that, so I might possess her autograph also. She laughed at this, not understanding that I meant it. But she wrote it finally, continuing to laugh. Then we all went out of the house, and from that moment Jules Verne was nothing but a common councilor of the city of Amiens. He showed me the city buildings, discussed municipal questions, asked me concerning the municipal administration of Italian towns, with which I was well acquainted in my capacity as member of the common council of Turin. The acquaintances we met on our way would laughingly joke with our guide, seeing him abroad at an hour he generally gave to his writing. We visited the city hall,

then the cathedral and the art gallery, where his official attention was directed by me to a doubtful quotation from Dante inscribed on the border of a beautiful modern painting.

From this we went to the *café*, which he had not entered for several years, again to the great wonder of its customers and of the passers-by who saw us there. Such derogation from the usual habits of his life was almost unheard-of. He had the further kindness to accompany us to the railroad station. I expressed to him there what I had gained that day and what memories I should bear away with me. I certainly must have expressed myself in accents that art does not invent, for I saw his friendly, smiling eyes moisten, and I and my sons felt in his embrace that he returned to us the same feeling we gave to him. His dear countenance remained with us all the journey back, until we were aroused from our beautiful dream by the thousand lights and the ceaseless din of the Northern Railway Station at Paris.

My visit to Sardou was made under somewhat different conditions. A medical student and a student of law, my inseparable friends, accompanied me. He lives in the Rue de Madrid, not far from the center of Paris, in the third story of a high house. An august servant opened the door for us, demanding majestically, "Have you an appointment?" We had one and said so in a mild answer. We were led to a reception-room where I admired, more than the objects of art even, the pleasing harmony of the delicate colors of the furnishings and the graceful elegance of the shape of the furniture, revealing an exquisite artistic taste. I wondered what must be the magnificence of his country-seat at Marly, if this house was extremely plain in comparison, as I had been told. After a few moments the senatorial personage who had opened the door for us appeared again and made us pass into a large cheerful study-room, which Sardou suddenly entered.

It is not an easy thing to make his portrait with pen and ink, not indeed on account of the shape of his head and face but because of his expression, which is ever changing. He looked to me at first glance

like a priest, a high prelate versed in diplomacy of the papal court, and I called to mind at the same time the face of Napoleon Bonaparte and Voltaire's, besides the smiling photograph of a malicious old actress I had seen the day before in a show window on the boulevards. He had on his head a broad black velvet cap, from under which flowed wavy locks of gray hair. A silk handkerchief was drawn around his neck, and he wore a large dark jacket, looking something like a dressing-gown.

But my attention was held by that strange face, without beard, colorless, with a long nose and sharp chin, irregular lineaments, lighted by two very clear gray eyes, sparkling and full of thought. To their changeable glance the rapid movements of his sinuous and subtle lips, at once sharp and benevolent, corresponded, over which glided the light, half satirical smile of a young man. In seeing him you would say he was not more than sixty years old, in hearing him you would say that he must be younger still. He speaks with the light activity of actors that is very deceptive. We had no need to question him. He began to talk as if he were resuming a conversation begun some days before, with a flow of words, a choice of expressions, a vivacity of accent and gesture that anticipated my demands so promptly and satisfied my curiosity with the appearance of so confiding a carelessness that I was very much surprised at first, uncertain whether I was face to face with the most expansive and the frankest man I had ever known, or was looking at the deepest and keenest artist the human mind can possibly imagine.

I had been present the evening before at the three hundred and eightieth performance of "Madame Sans Gêne," at the Vaudeville Theater. It was put on the stage with an elegance I had never before seen, but it was declaimed so hurriedly that fully one half of the words escaped me. I told Sardou this, and added that finding myself in a box with Paul Déroulède, of whom I asked from time to time the significance of the words which escaped me, he, who is one of the most rapid talkers in France, would give me the

explanation, speaking much more hurriedly than the actors themselves, so that between the two rushing cascades of syllables, from the box and the stage, I ended by understanding very little of the whole thing.

Sardou laughed heartily at my story. But he also complained of the actors. He said all French actors do the same when they repeat a play very many times. The first few evenings they declaim as they should; afterward they absolutely swallow their parts. He was in despair over it. "Sarah Bernhardt herself," said he "does not do much differently from the others. She recites divinely at the general rehearsal, wonderfully the first evening, well the three or four performances following, and then at the top of her speed. It is worse when she plays outside of Paris. I heard her once at Nice. She and all the others made no other sound than 'ta, ta, ta,' as if to rid themselves of the piece as speedily as possible. I almost had the desire to cane them all. I said to them: 'Is that the way you play my works when I'm not present?'"

He asked if Italian actors sin in the same direction. I answered that they have rather the opposite defect, it not being so easy for them as for the French to make all hear what they say, whether because the national tongue is not as familiar in Italy to the hearers of every class as it is in France, or because Italians do not observe the same silence in their theaters as the French. For in Italy we consider it a sacred right to carry on a general conversation during the play. This compels the actors to raise their voices and emphasize their pronunciation.

We continued discussing this performance and I asked him how he had been able to write the first act, using such different kinds of words and so many different styles of expression, vulgar, graceful, argumentative, jocose. He answered that the dialogue of a play was always a difficult thing for him to write and that he worked over every comedy three or four times. On saying this he quickly ran to a corner of the room, where

he opened a box from which he took a handful of manuscript. He showed us the successive copies of the same comedy, written on small detached sheets, which looked like a bundle of letters, and in an elegant and minute handwriting, full of very small corrections between the lines and on the margins. And he began to turn over the leaves rapidly, talking all the while, finally handing them to my two young companions for inspection.

With the same frankness he spoke of the conscientious care and patient love with which he is wont to make the most minute researches as to scenery, costumes, and all the details of the performance of his dramas, so that the setting and accompaniments may be exact and most helpful to the effect of the work. This is especially true in regard to his historical plays. And we saw a beautiful example of this care in two large fine water colors representing two scenes of "Theodora," which he had had painted according to his own design and indications. "Theodora" recalled "La Tosca" to my mind, one of my favorite plays, and to my suggestions he replied by saying that he had composed that drama under the inspiration of historical researches undertaken for another work.

Sardou on the whole appeared to me like a man satisfied with himself, endowed with all those amiable qualities that self-satisfied men are wont to have, satisfied with his success so that he continues steadfast in the old dramatic path. He needs the certainty of success—loud and immediate success. He knows he can attain it with the means he uses, and is not willing to try others, fearing the risk. The voice of criticism is drowned in his ears by the plaudits of the multitude, by the shower of gold his dramas never fail to produce, and by the great trumpet of fame which sounds abroad his praises. An original figure is he, one of the youngest of old men, one of the most artistic of conversationalists, one of the most amiable of illustrious men I have ever known.

POPULAR AMUSEMENTS IN NEW YORK.

BY FOSTER COATES.

WHEN Goldsmith wrote of one Remote, unfriended, melancholy, slow he was in a hazy atmosphere. The good old gentleman knew nothing about New York City up to date. And it may be said truly, too, that there are a great many thousands of people in these United States who know nothing about the *fin de siècle* New York, its joys, its follies, its enterprises for killing time, for spending money, for amusements, and for gratification of all kinds. I know it is customary to speak of New York as a sordid city, where men think only of money-making and where there is little, if any, joy, and contentment is unknown. New York is truly a city of money-changers. But when the day is done the busy men of the shops, the warehouses, the counting-rooms, and the banks are eager for a change from work to play. And when New Yorkers play they do it with the light-heartedness of school-boys on a holiday. They play as hard as they work. They spend their money as freely as if there were a mine of Golconda at every street corner. They go in for a good time and know how to have it.

As in all cosmopolitan cities the public amusements are the ones most patronized. New York is cut up into so many cliques and sets and so many social circles that you are surprised, in talking with a New Yorker, to find how little he knows of the home social ties that make the residents of smaller cities neighborly, if not quite brotherly.

Chief of the places of amusement of New York are the theaters. At the present time there are forty-one theaters, nine music halls, and twelve museums and concert halls open every night in the week except Sunday, and a good many of them give matinees twice or three times a week as well. When Greater New York is accomplished there will be ninety theaters,

music halls, museums, and concert halls which will offer advantages to seekers after knowledge and pleasure not excelled in London, in Paris, in Berlin—indeed in any city in the world. In the Metropolitan Opera House grand opera is given on a more sumptuous scale than in London or in Paris. I have witnessed many performances in Covent Garden and in the Grand Opera House in Paris, and I am frank to say that I have never heard better singing, seen better acting, or listened to better music than in New York City. Now and then you may catch glimpses of royalty in Covent Garden. Now and then you will see a French celebrity at the opera in Paris, one of the Immortals, a literary lion, or a Russian count, but nowhere in the world will you see more beautiful women, more gorgeous gowns, or a more lavish display of jewels than in the Metropolitan Opera House.

For the last few years the opera has become the fashionable "fad" in New York. By this is meant that society men and women patronize it, pay enormous prices for boxes, and make it a part of their social existence. A good many of these society butterflies, I am quite sure, care nothing about music. You may hear them gobbling like magpies even while De Reszke, Melba, Eames, or Calvé is on the stage. Wealth and rich apparel are sometimes the best evidence of ill breeding, and now and then there are vigorous and well-merited hisses from the occupants of the orchestra stalls who tire of the annoyance of the chatterers.

A glimpse into the Metropolitan Opera House on an opera night will send the blood tingling through the veins. It is an inspiring sight. The vast auditorium is crowded. Every box is occupied. Tier upon tier rises, crowded with human beings, the women bejeweled and elegantly gowned,

the men in severe black raiment relieved only by an expanse of shirt bosom and white neckwear. When a great singer appears the applause is deafening, and as enthusiastic as the cheers heard in a national convention when the favorite candidate for president has been named.

The opera is the most "fashionable" amusement we have. I may be doing an injustice to the box-holders when I say that they care more for the social prominence that the opera gives than for the music. But I am well within the line of truth when I say that the men and women who occupy seats in the orchestra and the galleries are enthusiasts who know all about music and musicians. Poor music they will not have at any price. Every attempt that is made to foist a company of poor singers upon the New York public has signally failed. It really does not seem to matter how high the charge is to hear great singers. It is paid with cheerfulness. The musical cult is ever growing in numbers and influence.

But the theaters attract the greatest number of people. A good play is certain to have a long and prosperous run. What have been called costume plays, plays of the romantic school, sparkling society dramas, and farces attract the most attention. As I said before New Yorkers do not take their fun seriously. They like to laugh. They have no use for tragedies except when some of the great performers, like Irving, Bernhardt, or Duse, appeal to them through the media of gorgeous stage setting, elaborate costuming, and splendid acting. They want to be amused. When it is remembered that only a few of the plays presented are financially successful and that it costs from \$1,000 to \$20,000 to properly mount, stage, and costume a good play it will be seen that the managers have to be men of nerve as well as adepts in the art of catering to the public. Perhaps it would be fair to say that it costs \$5,000 to produce the average play. It costs from \$5,000 to \$30,000 to produce a new grand opera. This, of course, includes scenery, costumes, and all the paraphernalia of the stage-worker's craft.

New Yorkers are great theater-goers. To many it is the only place of amusement. A large number of people care little or nothing for social festivities, but find relaxation in a good play and a bit of supper afterward in some one of the dozens of good hostleries adjacent to the theaters. They care nothing for card parties, reading clubs, lectures, or amusements that require thinking. As one man tersely put it to me the other day, "I have enough sadness, enough trouble, enough tragedy in my business life to completely depress me. What I want in the evening is an hour or two at the opera or the theater where there is music and laughter and singing."

And a pretty penny New Yorkers pay for their amusements. The minimum scale of admission at the opera is \$1, and the maximum for a good seat is \$5. A box will cost from \$20 to \$100 a night for the season of eighty performances. Perhaps it would be fair to say that the cost of the average box at the opera for the season is \$4,000. And this, you know, is but the beginning of the expense. It is only one of the adjuncts of fashionable life. Before one can become an occupant of an opera box there are elaborate gowns to be purchased, horses and carriages, footmen, lackeys in waiting, dinners, suppers, and flowers until this part of the social life of the fashionable family in this great city amounts each year to a small fortune.

The scale of prices at the theaters is more moderate. From a minimum of fifty cents to the maximum of \$20 for a box gives a fair idea of what must be paid. The best theaters now charge \$2.50 a seat, and even at this price, which is considerably more than the average man in New York earns per day, the houses are crowded and there is laughter and joy everywhere.

What are known as "Sunday night concerts" have of late years become part of the city's life. During the winter the singers of the Metropolitan Opera House Company give on each Sunday evening a concert that always attracts an enormous audience of music lovers; and in Carnegie Music Hall and in some of the other halls

oratorios are performed and music of a religious character is given by the best artists and musicians. It is at a Sunday night concert that one may see the lovers of music to the best advantage. With popular prices of admission, the performance begins with great enthusiasm and cheer upon cheer as some favorite singer or performer appears.

Strange to say the Sunday night concerts attract the most discriminating audiences. There is nothing trivial, nothing low, nothing degrading on the program. The music is all of the very highest order. The artists are of the highest grade. While the program is miscellaneous it usually contains a number of symphonic poems, classics from the great masters of music, and they are listened to with the greatest interest by men and women who are keen critics and who applaud or disapprove with the utmost precision. If the orchestra begins with the overture from "William Tell" we jump quickly to a symphonic poem from "Saint Saen," and then through the mazes of Wagner to Schubert's immortal gem "Die Allmacht." We get the best there is in the grand operas, with now and then something from the oratorios and a French or German song that is full of style and finish. It is not too much to say that the Sunday night concerts have done more to popularize good music in New York than all the performances of the opera that have been given. How alert is the audience is shown when an encore is about to be given. Before the accompanist has touched half a dozen keys of the piano the audience has caught the air and is applauding vigorously, until sometimes the singer is compelled to wait for the hand-clapping and bravos to cease.

There has sprung up in New York a colony of musicians and music lovers who have drawn their inspiration from the popular music halls, from the popular music classes, from the popular concerts, until every restaurant that flourishes in the evening has its little band of musicians who play during dinner and supper and there is given each evening a concert of the best music until

the moment that the latest diner has departed. Much of this popularity is due to men like the late Dr. Damrosch, Herr Seidl, and Walter and Frank Damrosch, who, in the face of adverse criticism, cheerfully pursued their labor of love until at last they have conquered by their perseverance. It may be said in all candor that proportionally there is a larger number of genuine lovers of music in New York than in any of the big cities of Europe.

"Ah," but I hear some one say, "these entertainments that you are describing are not for the busy people, not for the poor men and women, but for the children of fortune, with expensive tastes and habits." And I reply that for those who want to be entertained every night in the week without costing them a cent New York offers unequaled advantages.

Let me take a week as a sample of what I mean. On Saturday evening the Board of Education provides free lectures for the people. These lectures are given in the public schoolhouses. You may take your choice of entertainment. You may have art, literature, science, or the drama, as you please. You may learn about earthquakes, about the University of Oxford, about the laws of health, about Armenia, about Shakespeare, about Hawaii, about "How We Are Governed," about the X rays, about "First Aid to the Injured," and so on through a long list of topics, each one informative and interesting. On Sunday we may go to the Cooper Union to the popular singing classes, to Carnegie Hall, or to the vesper services in the churches, where the soloists are of the first order of talent and where the music is not equaled or surpassed in any other city. There are Sunday night concerts that cost nothing. They are not elaborate but there is good music and good singing.

On Monday night you may go to the bicycle and riding academies, of which there is any number and where there is plenty of music, whirling wheels, spirited horses, and evolutions in riding and driving that are certain to interest you. On Tuesday night there are the skating rinks, where there is plenty of good music, flashing steel,

slippery ice, and beautiful women in gorgeous costumes. On Wednesday there are church fairs, fairs for charities of all kinds, "smoking concerts," at which there is more music than smoking, and entertainments of various sorts that cost nothing if you desire to keep your hand on your pocketbook. On Thursday night there are balls given by political or social clubs and organizations of working men and women, to which, if you are smart enough, you may be invited without money and without price. On Friday nights there are the Young Men's Christian Associations, there are the reading clubs, the debating societies, and a hundred and one charitable organizations that throw open their doors and provide good entertainments of music, readings, and lectures for those who desire to enter.

And I have not yet enumerated a quarter of the entertainments that are at hand. I have said nothing about the great work that churches like St. Bartholomew's and St. George's are doing. I mention these two because they are the best type of what religious men and women are doing to help those who are not able to help themselves. Every night in the week there is some sort of service of an entertaining character in some one of the buildings connected with these parishes. And what is true of St. Bartholomew's and St. George's is true of hundreds of other churches. The directors in these works of usefulness now understand that the way to reach men's souls and minds is by influencing them to become better men and women, by music, by readings, by lectures, by entertainments, rather than by preaching of an hereafter in which all is sorrow.

I have made no mention yet of a form of entertainment that is very popular. It has become the fashion of late to give formal dinner parties at home. And as if this were not enough nearly every host feels it incumbent to engage musical or literary talent of some kind to entertain his guests. Thus it is that we have quite one hundred and fifty men and women who read, sing, dance, and perform on musical instruments, engaged each evening. Each of these artists, so

called, is paid from \$10 to \$50 per night. Time was when a *musicale* was made up of home talent. Nowadays wealthy men pay as much as \$1,000 for a company of artists to amuse their guests, and at card parties, dancing parties, and the like there is now a variation of the old order of things by the introduction of professional actors and actresses who disport themselves and amuse the guests of the evening.

A form of entertainment once popular in New York has almost entirely died out. Lectures and entertainments of the lyceums are things of the past. Even the lamented Bill Nye seldom drew a large audience in New York, and it is only on rare occasions that some new idol, suddenly become popular, like Ian Maclaren, attracts attention. Somehow New York City people will not patronize lectures unless they are free, such as provided by the public school department. Even the churches, which once gave great prominence to the winter's course of lectures, have entirely abandoned the idea.

I have said nothing, either, about the great public balls of the winter. You have heard much, no doubt, about what is called the French ball, but it is hardly worth discussion here. It is a very poor imitation of the students' ball in Paris and is patronized only by men and women without any past, present, or future. But the balls given by the Old Guard, by the Palestine Commandery, by the great German societies like the Liederkrantz and Arion are largely representative of the best there is in the great city. They are patronized by men and women of social, political, and financial prominence. They are conducted orderly, attract thousands of people, and are very good safety-valves for letting off superfluous hilarity.

A new order of amusement that has taken hold of Gothamtown is the "continuous performances" in some of the theaters. They have become quite popular. These performances begin at eleven o'clock in the morning and run with little or no intermission during the entire day, and up to eleven o'clock in the evening. They are of the variety order, but of a high class, and have attracted some

of the best performers from the legitimate stage. They are patronized most liberally and have made fortunes for their projectors.

Compared with London or Paris New York offers more legitimate and clean amusements than either. We have not the "penny-pops" of London nor the *cafés chantants* of Paris. We have what is much better, wholesome amusements provided by the churches, the various literary, singing, and debating societies and clubs, the various associations that are trying to ameliorate the condition of the lowly, the theaters, the reading-rooms, the Young Men's Christian Associations, and organizations of a kindred kind. New Yorkers take their amusement in a more decent way than do the Parisians and in a more enjoyable way than do the Londoners.

Though there are many free entertainments provided it should not be forgotten that the money expended each year in public amusements in New York alone would run up into hundreds of millions of dollars. If I were to give you the figures as they have

been given to me you might suspect that I was trying to rival Mullhall, the English statistician, so I shall not do that. I have contented myself with simply giving you an outline of the facts, and you shall say for yourselves whether or not the men of the city are sordid money-grabbers instead of lovers of ease, comfort, and amusement.

I cannot close without referring to the work that is being done in an unostentatious way by some men and women of large fortunes. They are doing their share of good in the world in a variety of ways, but in none, I believe, more appreciatively than by employing well-known entertainers who now and then go about the big town into the newsboys' lodging houses, the mission houses, the hospitals, and institutions of that character, where they bring laughter to take the place of tears, give joy for sorrow, and drive away pain by the music of their voices and the magic of their nimble fingers. Truly, "They serve God well who serve his creatures."

THE USE.

BY GEORGE NEWELL LOVEJOY.

IT is hard to shout when things go wrong,
 And the world seems a heartless place;
 It is hard indeed to whistle a song
 Or go with a smiling face!
 It is hard, I know, to endure, ah me!
 When we feel the javelin;
 But if all went right then there would be
 No victory to win!

And so I think 'twere better to take
 The bitter as well as the sweet,
 And bravely bear, though the heart must ache,
 And sore must be the feet;
 For, were all this life felicity,
 With never a cross for men,
 Oh, where would be the victory,
 Or the need of heaven, then?

WOMAN'S COUNCIL TABLE.

NURSERY PUZZLES.

BY THE FAMILY DOCTOR.

“**W**HAT shall we do with our cry-babies?” is a question that has puzzled family-mothers almost as much as the problem of temperance reform.

“She makes me carry that blooming howler four or five hours every night, yer Honor,” said a divorce-seeker, “and I want to know if there is a law to prevent me from cutting this business short.” “Yes, there is,” said the judicial humorist—“the law about common carriers; you can’t back out of your contract.” And the malcontent went away a sadder, if not much wiser, man.

The Glasgow weaver congratulates himself on his superior wisdom in such matters and buys a bottle of “black drops”—“warranted to knock ’em out, if they have lungs like a fog-horn.”

American venders of a similar nostrum adapt their advertisements to the taste of an esthetic public: “Our soothing-compound will alleviate the irritation of the nervous disorder, and we confidently invite comparison of its unfailing effectiveness with that of any rival preparation.”

It is the argument of “results, and no questions asked” that has turned many a chief of sinners into a saint. When the Portuguese government abolished slavery in their East African colonies one notorious kafir-thrasher claimed that the clemency of his treatment was attested by the fact that two of his slaves had declined to leave him; but investigation proved that one of those *attachés* had been crippled for life and the other clubbed into idiocy. They remained because they could not get away; and for analogous reasons the victims of soothing elixirs can be warranted to keep the peace—they do not cry because their faculty for vocal complaint has been extinguished together with their consciousness.

It would be cheaper and all in all perhaps more merciful to sandbag the little screamer into insensibility. But “Put yourself in my place” pleads the poor mother; “coming home tired from ten hours of hard work at the factory, then working about the house two or three hours, and longing for sleep as a famished creature longs for food—how in the name of pity can I afford to trot around the rest of the night with a crying baby—wearing myself out and driving my husband crazy or to the gin-shop?”

For such the project of night and day kindergartens would perhaps be the best solution of a cruel problem; but those who administer opiates for the baby’s, rather than for their own comfort, may find solace in the assurance that chronic screaming fits indicate an altogether abnormal condition of the nervous system, and will subside upon the reestablishment of even moderately good health. The young of our next zoological relatives are as quiet as dolls unless they are teased beyond endurance; Indian babies rarely cry, and a correspondent from Barrackpur, British India, describes the “pathetic silence of the poor starved infants, clinging to the breasts of their haggard mothers”; but an unfortunate idea prevails in nurserydom that it is hunger that makes babies scream.

The fairies love the niggah well,
sing the Barbados darkies,

They know the niggah by the smell,
And when the niggah’s children cry
The fairies send ’em possum pie;

and infant aristocrats are coaxed to guzzle whenever they emit their signal of distress. For a while that expedient really answers its purpose; overrepletion tends to induce sleep or a sort of lethargy, as one may experience in the drowsiness of the after-dinner hour;

but before long continuous surfeits avenge themselves in a state of far-gone gastric disorder, associated, like other forms of dyspepsia, with nervous irritation of a more and more pronounced ill humor. A lower diet and a higher pillow are the best remedies in such cases. Try to amuse the child, to make it forget the approach of the surfeit hour; reduce it to a minimum of milk gruel; permit it to exercise its teeth on an arrow-root biscuit, a stoned dry plum, or some similar harmless but tenacious substance; omit a meal altogether, every now and then, without the least apprehension as to ultimate consequences. At night keep the child's head cool, and high enough to lessen the tendency of gastric disorders affecting the brain. Avail yourself of the first day of pleasant weather; there is nothing like a romp in the sun-warmed fields to promote sound sleep. The progress of the cure may be retarded by the child's fretfulness during the first few days, but after that will be aided by the circumstance that in childhood the self-regulating tendencies of the organism assert themselves much more promptly than in after life.

Catarrh microbes are guests with a proclivity for introducing their relatives, and another puzzling problem is the management of children that are always apt to catch cold. After months of sniffing and coughing the little patient perhaps begins to complain of pains in the throat; the trouble may result in croup, or something worse, and the alarmed mother makes up her mind to take no risks if she can help it. Outings are suspended altogether; in winter the windows are probably nailed down to exclude every breath of cold air; but after all the youngsters cannot be expected to submit to a perpetuity of indoor confinement. Their wistful looks, as they linger about the window, suggest a desire for a change of scene, and their mother at last consents to take them to meeting or to the new museum. But that expedient is an appeal from demons to Beelzebub, and a graphic humorist, with a good deal of hygienic insight, describes a crowded, overheated meeting-house as a place where

"Freddy's cough-germs establish a colony in Tommy's throat; old Jones' consumption microbes hover about in search of victims, and Smith's departing influenza takes a fresh grip on Jackson's lungs."

The theory of contagious lung disorders has, indeed, become something more than a hypothesis. No public school teacher with the least capacity for observation can doubt that catarrhs spread from child to child, from class room to class room, often at a time of the year when the evidence of the thermometer makes it impossible to ascribe the trouble to the inclemency of the weather. "This changeable climate of ours" then becomes a scapegoat that can be made to bear almost any sin; but parents of common sense have no right to sacrifice the health of their children to an idiotic hearsay prejudice. They cannot any longer imagine that fresh air—warm or cold—has anything to do with the cause of lung affections. After all the evidence for the elucidation of the subject published in the course of the last twenty years they cannot doubt that "colds," catarrhs, and croup, as well as bronchitis and consumption, are house diseases, sure to be aggravated by a stagnant, overheated atmosphere, and equally sure to be mitigated or cured by cold, fresh air.

Safety, then, can be found only in a complete reversion of the conventional program: indulge your children in all the outdoor exercise they can enjoy, but keep them out of crowded assembly-rooms, out of stuffy street-cars and ferry-boat cabins; keep them away from every risk of contagion, at the hazard of discrediting their appreciation of social amenities.

The Rothschilds ascribe their success to their business rule of "avoiding partnerships with the unlucky," and lovers of hygienic prosperity ought to shun the approach of the unfortunates whose lungs have become microbe-traps. Uncharitable? Precaution is not viewed in that light in epidemics of diphtheria and smallpox only because in such cases the risk of contagion is more clearly recognized.

A grievous puzzle is also the overvivacity of certain children, who cannot be left ten

minutes alone without getting into ten different sorts of trouble. A Polish mother of West Chicago saw one of her little masters of mischief enact gymnastics on a second-story window-sill, and at once invested a part of her savings in a stout wire screen that prevented access to points of danger. Then, thinking herself safe, she took a trip to a coal-wharf to pick up a peck of fuel and on her return saw smoke issuing from the eaves of her house, as from the chinks of a lime-kiln. With the assistance of a neighbor she penetrated the deadly murk and opened every door and window in the house, but too late: her four children lay side by side, suffocated, and with most of their clothes burned to smoldering rags. During her two hours' absence the unfortunate little busybodies had got hold of the match-box and set the rugs and blankets afire.

Still the let-alone plan can be divested of the possibility of risk with a little precaution and two dollars' worth of wire netting. Screen the windows and fireplaces, lock away the match-box, remove everything that could be abused for purposes of a destructive missile, and turn loose your *enfants terribles*

as you would a troop of monkeys in a model menagerie cage. There is no sign of innate depravity about their penchant for destruction; as Jean Jacques Rousseau points out, it is merely their hankering for exercising their budding vigor, combined with the circumstance that demolition is so much easier than construction.

Toys, of course, are indispensable in a self-dependent kindergarten, and a friend of mine has experimented with quite an assortment of nicknacks that can be neither swallowed nor destroyed: footballs, leather cushions, and an empty apple-barrel wrapped round and round with heavy woolen rugs. His youngsters ride that contrivance all day with a never-ending delight, founded, possibly, on the fact that it serves to prefigure the ups and downs of practical life; they also have a grapple swing and a few football-proof pets—quite enough to keep them in good humor for hours together.

From a bandbox-maker's point of view that nursery-room is not a pronounced success, but it solves the problem of combining safety with abundant opportunities for physical exercise.

THE SCIENCE OF NUTRITION.

BY M. V. SHALER.

THE interpretation which we may put upon the developments of modern scientific discoveries along the lines of physiology, bacteriology, pathology, pathogeny, microscopy, chemistry, and the rest of investigation which bears upon the needs and conditions of man is that we have a problem before us which is of the greatest vital importance to our physical, mental, and moral welfare. Even our spiritual life is not beyond the influence of this great problematic discussion which proceeds from the laboratory. We can no longer disregard the statements and prophecies put forth from the workers in the laboratories of investigation. They have promulgated truths, and these cannot be refuted, however hard an effort may be made to disbe-

lieve because they have proved unpleasant.

It is a patent fact that the larger number of modern discoveries touch some point of physical being as they have brought their search-lights to bear upon defective methods or conditions. In reality we would seem to be in these days under the scrutiny of an army of sharpshooters whose chief aim it is to expose our weak points, for never before in the history of the world has human rank and file been so much the object of a steady fire from the standpoint of the sciences as to-day. In both continents there is an army of investigators zealously using that marvelous bit of crystal, the microscope, from day to month, from month to year, in the endeavor to discover causes and effects in a world which to us seems far

removed but which in reality is within and about us, and, in fact, is ourselves.

The microscope is the enemy of the obscure. It reveals the infinitesimal and shows us such conditions in our daily living as were never dreamed of. Its bacterial discoveries have made us shrink from its scrutiny. Its revelations in certain lines of manufacture have produced such an exposition of fraud that we can hardly be thankful enough for its beneficence. Along with chemistry it has brought us face to face with the great problem of the science of nutrition. It has awakened us to the fact that there is an intimate relation between success and nutrition, that morality is influenced by pabulum, that life is a mere matter of the infinitesimal carried into broader realms.

That we are in error in our food economy is no longer a vague theme to be scoffed at by the thoughtless, noticed lightly by the reader, and believed in only by the scientist. It is a substantial fact, easily proved to those who would be doubtful. Professor Atwater, under the direction of the United States Agricultural Department, has given to the people such data in bulletins showing the result of his investigations that any one of ordinary intelligence may fully comprehend, so concise and complete are they.

While there is yet much to learn through experimentation, there is at hand sufficient information to enable us to make very important deductions for personal use. We are told by the best authority that we must come to the realization that "not merely our health, our strength, and our incomes, but our higher intellectual life, and even our morals, depend upon the care which we take of our bodies, and among the things essential to health and wealth, to right thinking and right living, one, and that not the least important, is our diet." It is our good fortune to have learned this—to be told that the science of food reaches to every point on the line of battle for existence.

To the poor man it is everything—strength to work, morality to resist temptation, and courage to forestall calamity.

Temperance and peace have little place in the poorly nourished body. Passion and sin have no staying powers back of them when stimulation takes the place of nourishment. Depravity and starvation claim their victims where there is nothing known of what builds the body. Better instincts are forced back because body, mind, and soul are weak, and our half-fed, badly nourished classes are our brutal classes.

Ignorance and waste and misguided notions concerning food values keep the poor woman and her family the slaves of her improvidence. Her food, such as she thinks of purchasing, costs three times its nutritive value, if not more. Bad cooking adds its quota of misery to the deplorable system of purchase, and there can be no health or morality where it reigns. Nature must be satisfied and the saloon is the Mecca of relief.

A sequence to this ignorance is the depleted system, an easy prey to disease. Children half fed die by thousands and the world goes on flowing in the old channel. Ignorance among the masses, incredulity, conservatism, and indifference among the upper classes keep us where we are. The poor eat too little, the rich too much. Tradition, the palate, and the appetite reign supreme, while science has begun to roll the stone away from untold misery. It is for us to "keep the stone a rolling" and be willing to recognize the advance army of crusaders who would conquer the world of incredulity and ignorance.

Our greatest problem lies in individual necessity. What to one is enough to another is surplus. Sex and age, occupation and heredity, each must be considered before a *régime* can be established. The wear and tear of an active body requires a class of nutrients which to one of sedentary habits would be a burden. The brain-worker does not digest an oversupply, but is oppressed, and his capacity for work is impaired. To bring about an intelligent *régime* one must learn the constituents of food, their effects and what they produce in the body, their relation to the general standard of physical achievement, and by

thoughtful consideration and selection suit the kind to the case.

A study of the foods of nations shows beyond cavil the relation of sustenance to capacity. Edison has tersely put the truth in these words: "Those who eat rice think rice." However true this may appear, the science of food, as it develops under the power of the microscope and the experimentatives of the laboratory, can but be recognized, in the words of Dr. Mary E. Green, as "the broad foundation upon which the social and intellectual superstructure of our civilization is based and upon which the quality of our arts and higher industries largely depend."

When women in the home shall have given the impulse to this study which they gave to the study of parliamentary law, ethics, and the rest of self-culture which

has made the "club" a success for elementary education, there will be hope that the poor may be raised from out the darkness of ignorance, and the homes of high and low be made better, healthier, and happier.

The great movement toward culture has spent its first flush of usefulness, and there now comes a desire on the part of some pioneers for a more practical application of benefits derived, and this is where a grain of seed, well planted, may be expected to grow. While the study of economics is progressing it is not perfected, nor is any science, so long as this vital matter of nutrition lies upon fallow ground.

The tower of self-education has been raised, but its foundation has no strength or permanence, and without these it must eventually fall into disuse. Our intellectual life depends upon our physical basis.

THE ETHICS OF DRESS.

BY ANNA HUNTER BARRON.

DRESS affects health favorably or unfavorably in so many ways that it would be impossible to go into explanations here beyond the statement of a few leading principles. Physical health and moral efficiency are closely connected. Any injury to one reacts upon the other. Undue regard for mere show in dress almost certainly leads to neglect of hygienic requirements in the form and substance of garments; and this in turn injures the wearer's physical health and lessens her vitality—hence an inevitable loss of moral force.

We need not be materialists in order to understand how defiance of physical limitations entails mental lassitude and moral cowardice. Nor must we infer that the immorality thus induced will be of a criminal sort; but the larger truth cannot be evaded: nature punishes her law-breakers—punishes them physically and spiritually—for every prohibited act. One law is that women shall be dressed for protection first, for adornment in the second place. Protec-

tion against cold, heat, wind, rain is of absolute importance; everything else must give way to this, or health will inevitably be lost. A distinguished physician whose practise has been large told the present writer that his experience had made it plain that more than two thirds of the diseases of which young women die are brought on by inattention to proper dress. Thin shoes in cold weather, low corsages, inadequate underwear, insufficient wraps, and scant head covering—these, he said, had caused more deaths than all the epidemics.

Most women of fashion will not deny that the fear of crushing a dainty evening dress will frequently prevent the wearing of heavy close-drawn wraps, no matter what the weather. So an exquisitely decorative coiffure prohibits the proper protection of the head; and the delicately fashioned shoes of the day recoil, as it were, from the vulgar touch of overshoes. Yet it is true that not those who set the fashions and are amply able to carry them out suffer most from these causes, but rather those who are poor and

yet imitate the rich. A close carriage stuffed with furs will enable the millionaire's daughter to wear a fairy-like robe between one palace and another when the wind blows a gale and the temperature is under zero. But when her less fortunate imitator lacks both carriage and furs the ball dress is but poor armor against the cold.

Here arises the true ethical problem. How far is the rich girl, who sets the fashions, responsible for the evil influence wrought upon the poor girl by her fascinating example? Such a question cannot be lightly set aside, and every woman may well ponder it. Leaving out the question of physical health, and only considering the peace of mind disturbed or destroyed by arousing an ambition which can never be satisfied, what a pathetic thing it is to find that your example has made another woman's or girl's life miserable!

Remember for a moment that mere difference in fortune cannot eradicate a natural feminine taste for beautiful belongings, that often enough the shivering, half-clad girl in the street will be found to possess even greater native artistic feeling than your own, and that to her your elegance and luxury appeal with a force scarcely within your comprehension. What to you is but commonplace, every-day life looks to her like a vision of fairyland; and too often, misled by imagination, she barter more than life with the expectation of rivaling you in exterior decorations.

It is presumable that no sound-minded, truly thoughtful person can hope that fashionable life is going to cease in order to better the life of the unfashionable world. Nor is it necessary. The best that can be expected is the spread of humane and charitable influences to the effect of obliterating indifference where gentle and sympathetic tact and thoughtfulness are so necessary. The poor need educating in sensible channels as much as do the rich; it is for them to discover that happiness does not clothe itself in gaudy raiment and set itself down to intemperate feasting. Contentment is not a possession of the millionaire, nor does it serve as thrall to the millionaire's daughter.

We are slowly but surely finding out that all reform worth counting as such may be charged to spiritual education. The people, from highest to lowest, advance in happiness exactly apace with the broadening of their spiritual sympathies and the deepening of their sweetest human insight. The more we know of one another the nearer of kin we seem to be and the sharper strikes in the sting of conscience for every neglect of duty toward our fellows. The richer we are the greater our responsibilities; but the poorer we are the clearer should be our duty not to set too high a value upon the flashing will-o'-the-wisp called riches. In all countries the middle classes are the best and happiest people, from which it may be safely inferred that extremes are, though wide apart, much alike. The sting of poverty and the temptations, the worry, the hollow disappointments, and the fatal excesses of great wealth would be hard to choose between by a healthy mind were all the facts known.

But what has all this to do with dress? Look around you and see the answer. A very large majority of young women reckon the value of wealth almost wholly by the gowns it would enable them to purchase, by the fashionable entertainments it would make possible, by the social victories it would insure. Never a thought of sweet charity, never a dream of rendering the lives of unfortunate sisters better worth living, enters into the estimate. And this narrow and essentially vulgar selfishness is not in most cases due to native badness of heart; it is the result of habitual thoughtlessness. Our girls are not educated to regard life as being any broader than the social circle in which they are to move; and to dress up to the despairing envy of their associates is one of the highest aims of their effort. What is more talked of than the most attractive and costly gown at the latest function?

This inordinate passion for dress display has already largely affected the natural course of matrimony in our country. Young men of marriageable age fully understand the terms of a problem in which extravagant expenditure of money is the chief factor, and

they feel the danger of marrying upon a small income when they know that the girl of their choice will never be content with less than the wardrobe of the wealthiest of her acquaintances. Scarcely a week passes that does not bring news of a defalcation, a forgery, a robbery, or a suicide traceable to some young man's insane efforts to procure money with which to support undue social extravagances. Almost every sort of disappointments, disagreements, despairs may be safely attributed to a failure on the part of the young husband to maintain for his wife what is falsely named "social distinction," and our divorce courts record the results. Too often at the bottom of it all lies an insane desire for dressing utterly beyond the income at command.

In the course of an investigation of criminal records the present writer was told by a man who for more than thirty years had served as police judge and in other court capacities that the recurrence of various crimes committed by young women for the sake of finery in dress has been alarmingly on the increase during the last ten years. Nor

were these crimes confined to poverty-stricken victims, many of the perpetrators being women of respectable, even moderately wealthy, families. So great has become the stress of desire for fashionable success and so enormous the cost of the things necessary to attaining it that shoplifting is not unusual (with *cleptomania* as its *partrician* name) among people rich enough to live in brown stone houses in fashionable streets.

Within the limits of a paper like this one can but suggest a few outlines for the reader's further filling up. The thing needed is education of the young in correct views of life. Girls should grow up to feel that there must inevitably be rich people and poor people and that the rich are not necessarily better in any way than the poor; that, on the other hand, the rich are not to blame because the poor are poor; that there is no natural and just antagonism between rich and poor; and, finally, that education is worse than worthless if it does not bring all classes nearer to a common criterion of human excellence.

MYTHOLOGICAL PASTRY.

BY MARTIN BECK.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE GERMAN "UEBER LAND UND MEER."

EVIDENTLY the old-fashioned forms of the various kinds of baking have a history of their own. What do their remarkable, sometimes enigmatical forms signify? Why are the same plain, venerable forms unchangingly repeated? Can they be merely the arbitrary fabrication of housewives and bakers? But in that case the same forms would not always be retained. All imaginable shapes could be made with the dough and baked—shapes more convenient than many of those so constantly copied. Apparently superior ease and simplicity in their making cannot explain the survival of these plump human and animal forms, the gingerbread horsemen, pretzels, pancakes, tree cakes, rolls, and so forth. The traditional preference

for them must have a deeper foundation.

Let us pick out at random the most conspicuous forms, the gingerbread men and riders and the primitive animal forms allied to them. Where have we seen similar plump botches of art from which they might be imitated or at least copied in outline? Ah, in museums, especially in those for ethnography. Here the inartistic amulets and idols of primitive races fashioned in the simplest manner as if by a child's hand from wood or modeled in clay which was afterward burnt are the exact counterparts of our gingerbread men. Obviously there is a connection between them. And why not? In the times of sacrificial feasts pastry could not be dispensed with and a portion of it had to be sacrificed to the gods

with the meat offering. It was but a short step to give the pastry destined for this high use a special form. This form was not chosen madly, and it seemed most appropriate to model in bread or cake dough the animal sacrificed, or at least some characteristic part of the animal. This pastry found favor especially with those who were not able to obtain any of the animal sacrificed, who for the most part were children, because it enabled all to take part in the sacred feast.

In later times the custom of this symbolic sacrifice came more into evidence. With the changed conditions of civilization the sacrificial animals generally became too expensive for the earlier great public sacrificial feasts, which then lost their feature of publicity and finally were reduced to small festivals limited to single families. For this purpose a whole sacrificial animal such as a bull or a boar of course was too much. The very largest number of kinsmen who united with their chief for the festival would require several days to devour such a large quantity of meat. Naturally individual families had to content themselves with a part offering in one animal. The pastry symbolic of the animal sacrificed gradually displaced the animal until at last it consisted almost entirely in an ancient but unmeaning remnant of a long-forgotten worship.

To this kind of mythological pastry belong our Christmas cakes, so common in old Germany, which picture a plump baked wild boar. The boar was sacred to the northern Frey or, as the Germans have it, Frô, the one who makes glad, the oldest German sun god, who as such also was the god of peace and plenty.

The custom of the boar feast is observed in part to this day. Formerly, according to the old sagas, the whole animal was served. On him, the sin offering, says the Edda, the people laid their hands and made their vows. By this means they thought to propitiate the sun god, who in his anger against the world caused gloomy winter by withdrawing from the earth. In atonement the boar, the animal sacred to him, was sacrificed to him; that is, was

eaten in his honor. To eat roast pork on Christmas eve is a custom observed even at the present day in German families of Bavaria, and in the markets of Brandenburg, Prussia, the pig's head is a frequent sight on holidays. But the cakes have remained the most truly symbolic of the boar sacrifice.

The Saint Martin's bird, still found in many regions in the bakeries about the time of Saint Martin's Day, November 11, belongs in the same group of mythological pastry. It simply is wheat bread or cake dough baked in the form of a little brown bird, scarcely as large as a pancake. It is symbolic of the Martinmas goose, which among the old Germans was eaten in honor of Woden at the Woden festival in the fall. Later the day was rechristened in honor of Saint Martin. The Saint Martin's birds, like the little sheep which may be obtained the whole year through in many bakeries in Saxony and Thuringia, were without doubt at one time the substitutes for animal offerings.

That certainly was the case with the pastry hare met with in very ancient times throughout various German provinces, for the hare was a sacrificial animal not only among the ancient Egyptians and Celts but also among the Germans. Among the Germans it was sacrificed to avert possible evils—hence its ill repute as an unlucky animal.

As the goose, the bird of the winter festival, was devoted to Woden's or Saint Martin's Day on the introduction of winter, so the hare, the prolific, lively leaper, was dedicated to the first festival of spring, that of Ostara or Freia. That the hare was sacrificed to her is seen by pictures provided with her name on her various altars, eighty of which were found in 1647 on the island Walcheren alone. At Easter, when the hare was said to lay Easter eggs, the symbol of life awakening from the dead, it could not be sacrificed, because according to an Anglo-Saxon saga it formerly was a bird, but the pastry hare, at least, could be eaten. This custom has been almost entirely dropped.

The Freiberg peasant hare, a brown, long piece of pastry with white almonds on it, reminding one of a speckled hare, is yet in

vogue. Formerly it was in evidence only about Easter time, but now it is to be had any day at the gingerbread bakeries of the renowned old hill towns in Saxony.

Often in place of the entire sacrificial animal only a very characteristic part of it is represented in pastry. Thus on Saint Martin's Day the significant horn of Saint Martin's ox was used as a drinking vessel, a custom yet observed, at least in England, and little horns are to be got everywhere the year round at bakeries. The horse-shoe of the sacrificial horse is another instance of this practise. Among the Germans the horseshoe has great mythological importance in connection with Woden's steed.

The gingerbread men point back to the sacrifices of prisoners, of cavalry and infantry warriors. In these human sacrifices, even those of most remote antiquity, the gods alone were represented and men ate none of them, partaking instead of the baked and painted figures. Originally these baked figures were painted with the blood of the sacrifices. That is why the color red is so conspicuous on the gingerbread figures. The blood was considered to be the seat of the soul, therefore the most precious part of the being, for by eating it one not only gained strength for himself but annihilated his enemy, spirit and all.

In the earliest times, says the Edda, men not only drank the blood of their slain enemies but devoured their hearts. In their sacrifice of prisoners of war they did this. Later they substituted pastry hearts, which survive to-day in our gingerbread hearts. Gingerbread horses take the place of the actual horses formerly sacrificed.

We have now learned to explain the constancy to certain forms in mythological baking by the practise of making the pastry representative of the sacrifice or some characteristic part of it, but some pastry is intended to represent the god to whom the sacrifice or feast is dedicated. The latter was the custom in old Mexico. There the man who was to be sacrificed, before the eventful time came was called by the name of the god by whom he was to be devoured

and thus become a part of the devourer, and he was led about decked out in the clothes and trappings of this god. In order to enable all to partake of the sacrifice little images of him were baked with an admixture of his blood. Such an image was called the god to be eaten. It was somewhat similar to the blood-sprinkled gingerbread riders and footmen eaten by our earliest German forefathers. But these images were only a part substitute for such sacrifices: the other part is seen in the popularly revered figures of gods, facsimiles of the pastry figures, made into amulets of clay, amber, wood, and metal.

We cannot ascertain whether or not our pastry of this kind had the same origin as that of old Mexico, but the same fashion of baking likenesses of the gods prevailed among us. In Tyrol until recently it was the custom to model with the last of the bread dough a figure which was called a "god" and baked with the rest of the bread. According to the Frithjof saga images of the gods were baked and anointed with oil. That is how it happened when a baked Baldur and the figure of another god fell into the fire that the whole house caught fire. In this category of baking, which has proceeded from an ancient worship, belongs the tree cake, which once was considered sacred. It was baked in honor of the ancient giant trees and eaten on their feast day. Similar to the tree cake are the old Greek tree images of clay, religious gifts, such as those excavated from the island of Cyprus to-day are claimed to be.

The latest variety of mythological baking is an imitation of these religious emblems. To it belongs the familiar baking of Shrove Tuesday, the pancakes and pretzels. This Shrovetide festival was a sun feast in commemoration of revivifying nature, and was properly the first spring festival, when joy knew no bounds. On this account the pastry of this festival had reference to the sun. The pancakes represent the disk of the sun. In Saxony and Thuringia pretzels are offered for sale from Christmas night to Easter by boys who go about the streets with their pretzel baskets on braces and at-

this meaning to be an error, pretzel being a slight modification of the old German word meaning a chain. In form the pretzel reminds us of the magic chains of the old German sorceresses. There also were twisted articles of willow twigs which bore the same name. Perhaps the pastry was given this shape to signify that winter's chains were loosed.

BY MARY PROCTOR.

Is thick inlaid with patines of bright gold,

would imply. In fact, the true nature of the surface of the lunar globe can be readily discerned with a first-rate field-glass, and even a small opera-glass will reveal much to the attentive observer of the moon.

A common opera-glass will show many features on the face of the moon, and enable one to see the crescent of Venus, Jupiter's moons, Saturn's rings, sun-spots, and hundreds of stars one cannot see with the unaided eye. After making these observations with an opera-glass use a first-rate field-glass, the higher its power the better, and still more wonders will be seen.

See first that the object-glasses are achromatic. If a glass shows a colored fringe around a bright object reject it. Let the diameter of the object-glasses, which are the large lenses in the end farthest from the eye, be not less than an inch and a half. The magnifying power should be at least three or four diameters. A familiar way of estimating the magnifying power is by looking at a brick wall through one barrel of the opera-glass with one eye while the other eye sees the wall without the intervention of the glass. Then notice how many bricks seen by the naked eye are required to equal in thickness one brick seen through the glass. That number represents the magnifying power. See that the fields of view given by the two barrels of the opera-glass coincide, or blend perfectly together. If one appears to partially overlap the other when looking at a distant object the effect is very annoying. The fault arises from the barrels of the opera-glass being placed too far apart, so that their optical centers do not coincide with the centers of the observer's eyes. Don't buy a cheap glass, don't waste your money on fancy mountings. A good field or

Galileo's telescope, however, magnified thirty diameters, a very much higher power than is given to the opera and field-glasses of to-day. Yet he had to contend with the disadvantages of single lenses, achromatic combinations of glass for optical purposes not being contrived until nearly a hundred years after his death, and so his telescope did not possess quite as decided a superiority over a modern field-glass as the difference in magnifying power

marine glass is in some respects better than an opera-glass for celestial observations. It possesses a much higher magnifying power, and this sometimes gives a decided advantage. But, on the other hand, its field of view is smaller, rendering it more difficult to find and hold objects. Besides, it does not present as brilliant views of star-clusters as an opera-glass.

An opera or field-glass, though yielding but a low power as compared with a spy-glass, is admirably adapted for observations of the stars—affording a larger area of view with great clearness, and allowing the vision of both eyes. The employment of but one hand is necessary, both to sustain the glass and to adjust the focus.

The following glasses, all of which are on sale by the firm of McAllister, 49 Nassau Street, New York, and catalogued by them according to the numbers here given, I would recommend as excellent for studying the stars. In one of the best, No. 2303, the object-glass is one and eleven sixteenths inches in diameter, body three and a fourth inches, price \$5.00. The universal opera-glass, No. 2342, gives a remarkably clear definition and possesses very great power. The object-glass is one and a half inches, body three inches, price, \$15.25. No. 2343, also good, has an object-glass one and eleven sixteenths inches; the body is three and one fourth inches, price \$16.50. For field-glasses two excellent ones are No. 2400—body five and three eighths inches, object-glass one and seven eighths inches, price \$9.00—and No. 2408—body six and one fourth inches, object-glass two and five sixteenths inches, price \$18.00. No. 2007 and No. 2013 are highly recommended as spy-glasses. No. 2007 has an object-glass of one and seven eighths inches, four draws, is thirty-seven inches long extended and eleven inches closed, its power is thirty-five times and its price \$12.00. With this spy-glass excellent views can be had of the sun, moon, satellites of Jupiter, and double stars. No. 2013 has superior lenses and an object-glass of one and seven eighths inches; its range of powers is twenty-five to fifty times, its price \$25.00.

It is also possible to make a cheap astronomical telescope giving a magnifying power

of thirty-six times. The following are the directions for its construction, and mounting a set of lenses. Make a tube of wood, metal, or cardboard three inches in diameter, thirty-four inches long, and mount the object-glass in one end; at about three inches from it insert a diaphragm, or stop, having a central opening one and a half inches in diameter. Next make a tube of smaller diameter, six inches long, and mount the lens at its extremity. Fit a collar into the open end of the long tube, in which this smaller tube may move easily for the adjustment of focus. The inside of each tube should be painted a dull black, to stop any reflection of light. The set of two lenses consists of a crown object-glass three inches in diameter, with thirty-six inch focus, and an eye lens one half inch in diameter and one inch focus. These lenses (No. 2030) can be purchased at McAllister's for \$2.00. Lenses for a spy-glass seven eighths inches in diameter (No. 2000) are worth \$2.50; lenses for No. 2007 are worth \$12.00, and for No. 2013 are worth \$25.00.

It may be interesting to give a few instances of the work that can be accomplished by means of an opera-glass or field-glass. On page 60 of "A Study of the Sky," by Herbert A. Howe, and included in the required reading of the C. L. S. C. course, is to be found an account of Mizar, "one of the finest double stars, as seen with a small telescope, and the faint star Alcor, which the average eye should see without difficulty." If you turn your opera-glass toward Mizar and Alcor the stars will seem still further apart and there will be a noticeable difference in their color. A field-glass will show you another companion star, named Sidus Ludovicianum, and you will find a picture of Mizar, Alcor, and the Sidus Ludovicianum in Professor Garrett P. Serviss' "Astronomy with an Opera Glass," on page 28.

Another star that can be seen with the unaided eye is Alpha Capricornus. It is merely mentioned in "A Study of the Sky," on page 109. In "Astronomy with an Opera Glass" the following description is given:

Alpha really consists of two stars. They are about six minutes of arc apart, and are of the third and fourth magnitudes respectively. With an ordinary opera-glass they are thrown well apart, and present a very pretty sight, while a powerful telescope reveals that both of them have several faint companions.

On the same page in "A Study of the Sky" reference is made to Beta Capricornus, which "an opera-glass shows to be double." Serviss refers to it as follows:

The companion is of a beautiful blue color, generally described as sky-blue. It is of the seventh magnitude, while the larger star is of magnitude three and a half. The latter is golden yellow. The blue of the small star can be seen with either an opera or a field-glass, but it requires careful looking and a clear and steady atmosphere. I recollect discovering the color of this star with a

field-glass, and exclaiming to myself, "Why, the little one is as blue as a bluebell!" before I knew that that was its hue as seen with a telescope. Trying an opera-glass upon it, I found that the color was even more distinct, although the small star was then more or less enveloped in the yellow rays of the large one.

These are only instances of work possible with opera and field-glass; but during the winter months, while the glorious constellations Taurus, with its ruddy star Aldebaran and the Pleiades, Gemini and its leading brilliants Castor and Pollux, Orion and its principal stars Betelgeuse, Bellatrix, Rigel, Saiph, and Canis Major, with the peerless dog-star Sirius, are glowing in the evening skies, surely many an hour can be spent in this most delightful occupation.

THE FIGUREHEAD.

BY JAMES BUCKHAM.

SPHINX-LIKE she towers above the pier,
In this storm-sheltered, busy stead,
With face so stern and cameo-clear—
The carven lady figurehead.

The sea is crusted on her hair;
The waves have stained her brow and breast;
Her eyes—the storm and night are there—
Defiance, and a wild unrest.

Forthward she leans, as if to brave
The howling tempest, surge, and sleet;
Her path, the seething midnight wave
That breaks in fire about her feet.

What awful depths her eyes have seen,
And lurking monsters of the vast!
What death's-hair in the waters green,
And pale, drowned faces, floating past!

How tame, to her, the slimy quay,
The oil-scummed harbor, dead and gray!
O for the broad blue sky and sea,
The glory of the flying spray!

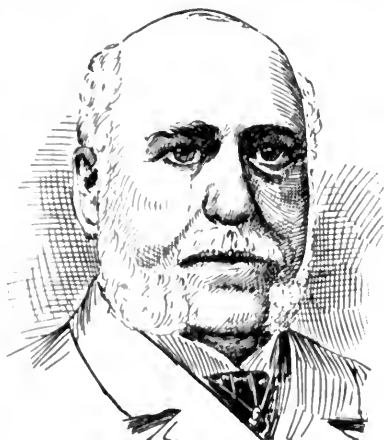
CURRENT HISTORY AND OPINION.*

THE ANGLO-AMERICAN GENERAL ARBITRATION TREATY.



RICHARD OLNEY.
United States Secretary of State.

THE treaty between England and America for the settlement of their differences by international arbitration instead of war still lacks the confirmation of the Senate to make it effectual. On January 11 it was signed at the State Department in Washington, D. C., by Sir Julian Pauncefote, British ambassador to the United States, and by Secretary of State Olney, and on the following day it was transmitted by President Cleveland to the Senate. Before it reached the Senate the text of the treaty was published simultaneously in London and America. It consists of fifteen articles arranging for the settlement of territorial claims and of pecuniary claims not involving territorial disputes. The territorial claims are especially defined as including "all claims to territory and all other claims involving questions of servitudes, rights of navigation and of access, fisheries, and all rights and interests necessary to the control and enjoyment of the territory claimed by either of the high contracting parties." Special provisions are made for pecuniary claims not exceeding one hundred thousand pounds in amount and for those aggregating more than this sum. Each of the several arbitral tribunals described to dispose of pecuniary claims shall consist of an equal number (specified for each tribunal) of members from the judiciary of Great Britain and from the judiciary of the United States, who shall agree upon an umpire or in case they fail to agree thereon the umpire shall be selected by King Oscar II. of Norway and Sweden. The court of arbitration for territorial claims shall consist of six members, three to be appointed by the United States president from the judiciary of the United States and three by the British sovereign from the judiciary of Great Britain. Their award to be final shall be made by not less than five majority. If it is made by less than five and is protested or if the members of the tribunal are equally divided the question shall be referred to one or more friendly powers for mediation. On February 2 the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations reported on the treaty to the Senate, where it now awaits further action. The injunction of secrecy was not removed from the committee's report but according to an unofficial account it included amendments first, stipulating that "no question which affects the foreign or domestic policy of either of the high contracting parties, or the relation of either with any other state or power, by treaty or otherwise, shall be subject to arbitration under this treaty except by special agreement," and, second, eliminating every reference to the king of Sweden and Norway as umpire.



SIR JULIAN PAUNCEFOTE.
British Ambassador to the United States

(Ind.) *The Post.* (Washington, D. C.)

It may be admitted also that, within certain limits, arbitration is more civilized than war. But as the United States has run along pretty successfully for more than eighty years without blustering or swaggering or war we see no cause for rejoicing over a proposition to continue, with foreign aid, a practise we have thus far been able to maintain without it.

(Rep.) *The Times-Herald.* (Chicago, Ill.)

Suppose it does improve England's position. A government cannot be expected to act from purely altruistic motives. . . . The only question that concerns us is whether the treaty is to the advantage of this country, and not whether we are the principal gainers.

(Dem.) *The Sun.* (New York, N. Y.)

Even for the maintenance of the Monroe Doctrine we want no European alliance. England, in her Venezuelan treaty, has done all we require in that

* This department, together with the book "The Growth of the French Nation," constitutes a special C. L. S. C. course, for the reading of which a seal is given.

respect. . . . At the time when Mr. Olney began his negotiations we held all the trumps in our hand; and we still hold them so long as the projected treaty remains unconfirmed. The moment that the Senate confirms it we shall have thrown the trumps away.

(*Ind.*) *The Evening Post.* (New York, N. Y.)

There is not the least doubt that Lord Salisbury has been coerced by the public opinion of Great Britain to change his policy in this regard. He has been dragged reluctantly to the negotiation. If ratification should be refused on this side of the water Lord Salisbury would be the chief beneficiary of that uncivilized backward step.

(*Rep.*) *Baltimore American.* (Md.)

It must not be forgotten that Great Britain has shown no disposition whatever to abandon war, either for the settlement of disputes or for aggressive purposes. Her willingness to make an arrangement with this country is, therefore, an exception, and may conceal an ulterior purpose.

(*Rep.*) *The Pioneer Press.* (St. Paul, Minn.)

But if it were not a transparent fiction it is incomprehensible that American senators should hesitate about confirming so beneficent a treaty either in deference to the wishes of Russia or on account of a senseless Anglophobia which has long been cultivated in this country by certain elements for no good purpose, or from the still meaner motive of an unwillingness to put another feather in Mr. Olney's cap.

(*Dem.*) *Times-Union.* (Jacksonville, Fla.)

It may not be entirely satisfactory in its terms, but that the spirit which it embodies ought to be encouraged by the Senate and by the people of this country ought not to be disputed by anybody.

(*Dem.*) *The Chicago Evening Post.* (Ill.)

Nothing could demonstrate more clearly the success of Secretary Olney in framing the most delicate provisions of the arbitration treaty—those, namely, providing for the settlement of disputes involving questions of national honor, dignity, or sovereignty—than the signal failure of carping critics and quibblers to discover a serious flaw or weak spot therein warranting intelligent criticism.

(*Rep.*) *The Denver Republican.* (Col.)

It is difficult to see what great good can be obtained by its ratification anyway. . . . The

great interests of this country are not seriously affected by the fluctuations in stocks and bonds, and we do not need the phantom safeguards afforded by arbitration treaties to protect our rights against the encroachments of any foreign power or any possible combination of foreign powers.

(*Rep.*) *The Mail and Express.* (New York, N. Y.)

One of the chief benefits to be derived from a treaty of general arbitration between the United States and Great Britain will be the avoidance of alarm and the unsettling of values in the financial world in case of an international dispute.

(*Dem.*) *The Chattanooga Times.* (Tenn.)

The general arbitration treaty between this republic and Great Britain will be a great big feather in the cap of the administration, whether the Senate confirms it or refuses.

(*Dem.*) *The Times.* (Hartford, Conn.)

When public sentiment gets to work on the Senate the treaty will probably be ratified, and it makes no great difference whether it is done now or two months hence, after McKinley shall have become president.

(*Ind.*) *Public Ledger.* (Philadelphia, Pa.)

It would be very gratifying to have an arbitration treaty with France, as proposed, on the basis of the one with Great Britain. If this were accomplished one with Russia would follow, and then the other nations could scarcely avoid falling into line.

(*Rep.*) *The Chicago Tribune.* (Ill.)

Before any proposition of general arbitration is considered we should be in as good a condition for defense as Great Britain is for offense.

(*Rep.*) *San Francisco Chronicle.* (Cal.)

The warning of Washington to "form no entangling alliances" has sunk deeply into the minds and hearts of Americans and is likely to prove an obstacle to arrangements that might be really desirable.

(*Ind.*) *The Providence Journal.* (R. I.)

The first thought in our minds will be not war, but arbitration. Not until arbitration has failed or wearied us by its tedious processes will we turn very seriously to the thought of powder and shot. And if our minds are diverted to so peaceful a means of settlement in the early stages of a dispute the hot-heads will have a chance to cool down, and then the chief danger will be over.

FOREIGN COMMENT.

The Pall Mall Gazette. (London, England.)

The committee is doing its best to make hay with the treaty. It has not dared to brave public opinion in withholding its approval absolutely, but it has left the treaty without value.

Zeitung. (Berlin, Germany.)

War has been a great factor in the advance of civilization. The policy of peace at any price is degrading. There is a good deal of sham behind the

American and English expressions of mutual sentiment. Both nations have common concern in Anglicizing the world, and other nations have small inducement to follow their example.

Daily News. (Paris, France.)

Next to England, with no great power of Europe is arbitration so popular as with France, which is ripe for a similar arrangement with both the United States and England.

St. James Gazette. (London, England.)

Secretary Olney, whom it was rather in fashion to scoff at in this country as an amateur diplomat, seems likely to leave a mark upon the international system of the civilized world.

Frankfurter Zeitung. (Frankfort, Germany.)

The treaty will encourage the friends of peace in

Germany to exert their energies toward a general reduction of the armaments of Europe and settle all future disputes by means of arbitration instead of a resort to arms.

Soleil. (Paris, France.)

The treaty is purely of Anglo-Saxon interest and is not inspired by the idea of universal peace.

INDIA'S SCOURGES.

BRITISH INDIA will not soon recover from its double scourge of famine and plague. The famine assumed alarming proportions early in the fall and its victims number untold thousands. In the district of Jebalpur alone, which had two million inhabitants, ninety thousand persons perished of starvation. India's secretary of state insisted that the resources of that country were sufficient to cope with its needs until January, when he consented to call on England for assistance. Americans headed by the Methodists on January 16 started a movement to send corn to the suffering districts. In January the bubonic plague broke out and finding an easy prey among the starving survivors from the famine spread with appalling rapidity. Its ravages have been most noticeable on the western coast at Bombay and Kurrachee, where the deaths number two or three hundred a day, the disease being still more deadly in the interior. It attacks swine, poultry, and rodents, which are active in carrying the contagion. On January 16 the powers agreed to hold an international conference at Rome to weigh measures for preventing the spread of the plague into Europe. Precautions have been taken by various individual countries, the United States having put into effect the quarantine regulations used during the cholera epidemic in 1894. Both scourges were raging in India well into February, though only occasional cases of the plague had as yet appeared in other countries.

The Press. (Albany, N. Y.)

There has, probably, been no occasion during the present century when there was greater need of combined charitable effort of Christendom in behalf of suffering humanity.

The Philadelphia Inquirer. (Pa.)

India is fourteen thousand miles from us, and a voyage to it would occupy several weeks. Besides this, our corn is something that is unknown to the people, and contributions in money could be cabled at once to London and from thence to Calcutta, so that they would be available for the purchase of wheat, rice, and other things to relieve the distress. This would be a display of practical Christianity sufficient to make even scoffers silent.

Ohio State Journal. (Columbus.)

But for the foreign government, with its railroads and advanced ideas, the mortality in India during the present affliction of famine and plague would be increased by many millions.

Mail and Express. (New York, N. Y.)

India's condition to-day is so awful that it may yet spread this deadly pestilence throughout the world unless the great maritime nations unite in a concerted effort to check it.

The Denver Republican. (Col.)

It will be recalled by those who have studied the history of the plague that when it was epidemic in Egypt, in 1835, commerce between Alexandria and England was hardly checked at all. While this may supply Englishmen with a basis for an argument

that there is no need of maintaining a strict quarantine, it will also awaken a fear that the English government will take few precautions which would interfere with commerce and trade. Doubtless English opposition to strict quarantine arises in part at least from English hunger for trade and the profits of commerce.

Times-Democrat. (New Orleans, La.)

Luckily there is no fear of its [the plague's] invasion in these modern days of our western world; we are too well fed and too cleanly in our surroundings for an unwelcome visitant of that sort.

Republican Standard. (Bridgeport, Conn.)

Although we have no fears of the plague here, it is not so long since our ways of living created disease and death and favored infection.

Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

It is feared the people of India will not eat the corn after they get it. Authorities on the subject say that the Hindoos would rather starve than eat food which might defile their caste, and it is recalled that in former famines many actually did starve rather than eat rice brought from Burmah. A ship-load of American corn would be wasted on such people, yet no doubt there are enough sufferers who would be glad to get it even in India to make the enterprise a useful one. Perhaps, too, hunger will overcome fanaticism and the famine will do more to break down the absurd caste barriers, which are such a hindrance to the enlightenment of India, than many years of prosperity and moral effort.

NATIONAL CONVENTION OF MANUFACTURERS.



MR. SEARCH.

President of the Manufacturers' Association.

AT the second annual convention of the National Association of Manufacturers held January 27-28 at Philadelphia, Pa., many important business topics were discussed. This association consists of nine hundred representative manufacturers. The president's report read at the meeting shows that our trade interests with South American countries have been greatly promoted through the efforts of the commission of manufacturers sent to South America. It also considered our trade relations with Mexico, China, and Japan. The committee on transportation reported that it had secured the introduction into the Senate of the association's resolutions providing for national freight classification. Resolutions were passed by the convention urging the earliest possible revision of the tariff law, calling for duties sufficient to protect our manufacturing and agricultural industries and the labor therein employed, advising that the tariff should contain only specific duties or mixed *ad valorem* and specific duties, and requesting the renewal of reciprocity treaties with all the great nations. Resolutions also were adopted asking Congress to make a law allowing distillers to bottle spirits in bond

for the export trade, petitioning the application of civil service rules to the whole consular service, and advocating the immediate revival of the American merchant marine.

Ohio State Journal. (Columbus.)

The organization of the National Manufacturers' Association is a step full of promise. It means co-operation in seeking new foreign markets for our surplus manufactured products. As at present our manufacturing capacity exceeds home consumption the need of foreign markets is undeniable.

Harrisburg Telegraph. (Pa.)

The association will have to wait a couple of months. President McKinley has not yet taken his seat, and the Ways and Means Committee has not yet prepared the next tariff bill, but when it comes it will be along the lines of protection, and the president will sign it fast enough. There is hope for American industries yet.

The Denver Republican. (Col.)

All the reforms in the consular service which might be made would not increase the export trade of the United States to silver-using countries without a change in our financial system which would establish a par or standard of exchange between those countries and this. That can be accomplished only by remonetizing silver, and, therefore, the manufacturers in their convention should have declared in favor of placing silver in respect of coinage rights upon a perfect equality with gold.

The Philadelphia Inquirer. (Pa.)

It is gratifying to find that at last our producers are coming to the conclusion that the way to build up a foreign trade is to start the ships.

IMMIGRATION RESTRICTED BY LAW.

ITALY is the country that, it is claimed, will be most affected by the new immigration bill which now promises to become a law. The bill originally fixing an educational test for male immigrants between sixteen and sixty years of age passed the House on May 20, 1896. Senator Lodge, of Massachusetts, reported it in the Senate with some additions and it was passed in that body on December 17. Two days later the House and Senate conferees reached a final agreement on the measures and their version was passed by the House on January 27. As it now stands the bill provides an educational test for immigrants ranging from sixteen to fifty years old, and by virtue of the amendment prohibits the employment of transient aliens in this country.

The Denver Republican. (Col.)

Restrictions should undoubtedly be placed upon immigration, but the best place to begin is at or near the port at which the emigrant proposes to take ship for the United States. No one proposing to emigrate to the United States should be per-

mitted to sail—except at the risk and penalty of the steamship company—without a certificate from an American consul showing him to be a fit person to enter the United States. Far better means of information concerning intending emigrants can be procured in the country of their birth or residence

than at the docks in New York after a steamer has arrived. Senator Lodge's bill concerning illiteracy had some foundation in reason, and yet it should be borne in mind that the possession of an education is no guaranty of moral worth. It is also true that illiteracy is not synonymous with morality. The conference committee did wisely in restricting the operations of the Lodge provision to immigrants between the ages of sixteen and fifty years.

The Mail and Express. (New York, N. Y.)

The new bill to restrict immigration by an educa-

tional test cannot be passed too soon for the benefit of the country. The measure works no hardship except to ignorance and illiteracy, and of these we can find an abundant native supply at all times, without the aid of Europe's loss, which has not been our gain. Pass the bill quickly.

Pittsburg Post. (Pa.)

The Italian government is the first of foreign governments to take stringent measures against the immigration to the United States of the undesirable class of its own population.

CECIL RHODES AND SOUTH AFRICA.



CECIL RHODES.

ENGLAND is now in the predicament of undertaking to punish at the same time one who fought for her and one who fought against her. On January 6 Cecil Rhodes sailed from Cape Town, Africa, to England to undergo a Parliamentary examination into his connection with the Transvaal raid. For this purpose he had returned from Matabeleland, where he first succeeded in pacifying the hostile natives, and his journey thence to Cape Town was attended with enthusiastic welcomes by the populace. Two days after his departure from Africa news was received at Cape Colony that the native revolt in Bechuanaland had become so serious as to oblige the magistrates and settlers at Kuruman to go into *laager* and that the uprising of the Balorosi tribe on Mashoning River was a matter of great concern to the settlers, though as yet both insurrections had cost few lives. But on January 21 dispatches arrived at London, England, reporting the massacre by the king of Benin of a peaceable British expedition sent to his capital to negotiate in the inter-

ests of trade. The expedition consisted of two hundred and sixty unarmed men, seven of whom were Englishmen, the rest natives. It started from Bonny, in the Niger Coast Protectorate, West Africa, about the 1st of January and proceeded in safety almost to the city of Benin, when the attack occurred. Only two of the expedition escaped with their lives. Upon receiving the news of the slaughter the English government immediately ordered an avenging army to march against the offending monarch.

The Chicago Record. (Ill.)

The promptness with which England defends British subjects in whatever part of the globe they may suffer injury is one secret of the respect accorded to British power in the large semicivilized regions over which its sway has extended or is extending. Whether the expedition had any business in the king of Benin's country is a question not likely to receive much attention except of a post-mortem sort.

The Philadelphia Inquirer. (Pa.)

The rapid extension of the "British sphere of influence" in South Africa is due to Rhodes and his indomitable energy. . . . Some ten years ago Rhodes is reported to have drawn a line across a map of Africa from ocean to ocean, near the head waters of the Congo, and to have exclaimed, "All that English—that is my dream." But to-day the dream of the people of English blood who live in

South Africa is the establishment of an independent African nation.

San Francisco Chronicle. (Cal.)

We have heard only the English side of this Benin controversy, but whatever may be the cause of this revolt the poor natives will have no chance of redress. The king will be deposed and some more tractable tool will be put in his place.

The Evening Post. (New York, N. Y.)

The inquiry in London can hardly avoid finding, as the inquiry at the Cape found, that Rhodes was privy to Jameson's raid, and his principal support will have to come from the stockholders in the Rand mines and from the Irish, as he contributed handsomely to home rule in the Parnell days. Had he held his tongue about the South African Republic the Imperialists would probably have rallied to him, but he has distinctly foreshadowed separation.

THE MONETARY CONVENTION AT INDIANAPOLIS.

At their convention in Indianapolis, Ind., January 12-14 "practical business men and financiers of the country" indulged in some lively debating before they could decide upon a course of action. The convention was called by the Indianapolis Board of Trade with the avowed object of shaping the present great financial question and then taking steps to push the plan adopted through the federal legislature. The delegates numbered three hundred, from nearly every branch of industry in the Union, representing thirty-four states and one hundred and thirty-five cities. They agreed almost unanimously upon three propositions: in favor of creating a national monetary commission, vested with official power to prepare and report a financial bill to Congress; in favor of a banking system which shall furnish credit facilities to every portion of the country and a safe and elastic circulation, and especially with a view to securing such a distribution of the loanable capital of the country as will tend to equalize the rates of interest in all parts thereof; in favor of legislation that will insure the ultimate retirement of all classes of United States notes by a gradual and steady process, so as to avoid injurious contraction of the currency or disturbance of the business interests of the country, and that in such retirement provision be made for a separation of the revenue and note-issue departments of the treasury. The chairman of the convention was authorized to appoint a committee of fifteen to urge upon the next session of Congress the passage of a law enabling the president to appoint a monetary commission which shall devise a way to put the propositions of the convention into effect. In case Congress fails to make such a law the committee shall name a commission to work up favor for the propositions among the people. The monetary conference bill was introduced into Congress on January 19.

The Cincinnati Enquirer. (O.)

It is a little strange that in less than ninety days after sound money had won such a great victory a call should have come to provide for a reform of our currency. Did not the reformers get what they wanted in November?

The Denver Republican. (Col.)

The reform that is most needed is not the retirement of the greenbacks and treasury notes, but the withdrawal of the note issuing function from the national banks. All our money, whether gold, silver, or paper, should be issued directly by the federal government.

Baltimore American. (Md.)

Some of the suggestions of the monetary conference at Indianapolis are good and some are not so good. Few will deny that the revenue and note-issue branches of the Treasury Department ought to be separated.

The Chicago Post. (Ill.)

The convention has discovered no original solution of the banking problem, but it has given precise and definite expression to the ideas and sentiments pervading the entire business community. It is a distinct gain to have all excuse for misconception and confusion removed.

Times-Union. (Jacksonville, Fla.)

In the absence of an international agreement under which bimetalism could be established all the propositions here advanced are, in our opinion, perfectly sound.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

The Indianapolis convention ended with just such impracticable non-action as might have been expected. The body did not represent the people of

the United States, nor any considerable part of them. It was a faint penumbra of the worst beaten administration in American history.

The Times. (New York, N. Y.)

There has never before in the history of our country been a movement so hopeful for good legislation.

The Tribune. (Minneapolis, Minn.)

The Indianapolis Monetary Conference will not accomplish much except in the way of arousing thought and discussion among the people. No plan that it is likely to recommend will stand any chance of securing immediate adoption in Congress.

The Chicago Record. (Ill.)

The report of such a commission should be of great value for the information it will present, but it is often true that commissions cause delay in effecting results. Inasmuch as the convention was agreed as to what is needed, it would seem that the reforms could be secured sooner by asking for specific legislation in line with the policy outlined.

Philadelphia Inquirer. (Pa.)

The resolutions adopted at Indianapolis are brief and direct as to the main purpose and extremely vague and unsatisfactory as to everything else.

The Times. (Hartford, Conn.)

One effect the action taken at Indianapolis certainly must have. It must tend to make more definite the coming issue between the two branches of the sound money men—the party who want to have the government turn the paper currency business entirely over the banks, and the party who want to have the government drive the banks out of the note-issuing business altogether.

THE CUBAN WAR.



GENERAL GOMEZ.
Commander of the Revolutionary
Forces in Cuba.

SPAIN'S postponement of her intended reforms for Cuba is not surprising in view of the aggressiveness of the insurgents during January. In the province of Pinar del Rio General Rivera, successor to General Maceo, has kept up a guerrilla warfare, General Gomez has operated in the provinces of Havana, Mantanzas, and Santa Clara, and General Garcia in Santiago de Cuba. The patriots have invaded the very suburbs of Havana, reducing to ashes Arroyo Maranjo, San Miguel del Padron, and San Francisco de Paula, and holding Nueva Pas in possession January 11-12; on January 21 they captured a train just outside of Havana. Meanwhile, about January 14 General Garcia vanquished a Spanish army at Incaibana, in Santiago de Cuba, and on January 18 his forces besieging Guamo, on Cauto River, sunk the Spanish gunboat *Relampago* carrying relief to the fort. On January 18 the wives and daughters of rebel leaders were thrown into prison at Puerto Principe. At this time General Gomez was marching westward, driving out the Spanish and burning their towns in Santa Clara. On January 20 General Weyler left Havana and with ten thousand men advanced toward Santa Clara. Two days later he ordered the destruction of all plantations and buildings in Havana Province that could shelter rebels, which measure elicited an immediate protest from the Madrid Chamber of Commerce. On January 23 General Weyler was attacked by the insurgents and made to change his route.

The Mail and Express. (New York, N. Y.)

Weyler carries a two-edged sword, and his present thrusts are doing much more harm to the empire than to the cause of Cuban independence.

The Kansas City Journal. (Mo.)

The almost unanimous opinion in this country in favor of the insurgents, and the active sympathy shown for them not only in Congress but in every city and hamlet in the land, have made a profound impression on Spanish statesmen. They realize that it will be cheaper to give the Cubans practical self-government and retain the island than to keep up the present fight and run the risk of losing it.

Times-Union. (Jacksonville, Fla.)

Instead of being reconciled to a surrender by the concessions, however great they may be, they [the Cubans] will accept the fact that they are made as proof that they are on the eve of complete success. Under such circumstances they will certainly refuse to consent to any terms short of the complete independence they have nearly won.

The Inter Ocean. (Chicago, Ill.)

The war has been so vindictive, so cruel, so barbarous, and so threatening in its outside complications that many Americans have felt that any plan that secured peace with a fair measure of justice to the Cubans was desirable. All these people forget that the struggle is being carried on not by Americans, but by Cubans, and that Cubans, not Americans, are the parties really concerned. The aim of the Cubans, as disclosed by the president of the *junta*, is independence.

The Pioneer Press. (St. Paul, Minn.)

The destruction of a Spanish gunboat by a Cuban torpedo indicates that the Cubans have adopted

new tactics which may prove their most valuable aid to success. It is of a piece with the wearing-out policy by which they have been enabled, thus far, to hold their own.

Times-Democrat. (New Orleans, La.)

Spain is in no condition to put in another twenty-three months' hostilities such as she has already put in, while it must be patent to everybody that the



GENERAL DON VALERIANO WEYLER,
Commander of the Spanish Forces in Cuba.

insurgents are in a far better fettle than they were in February, 1895, and that there would not be the least difficulty for them to continue the war for another two years or longer. For it has only been of recent months that their strength has really developed. If Weyler were now recalled and Martinez Campos were substituted for him it would probably not take a month to arrive at an understanding that

would end the war on terms creditable and honorable to both the belligerent parties.

The Kansas Capital. (Topeka, Kan.)

One of the reasons why European countries are not going to declare war on the United States because of Spain or Cuba is found in the fact that nine tenths of the world's total supply of cotton indispensable for the clothing of the people and the operation of thousands of factories belongs to the United States. On the last day of the year just closed four million dollars' worth of cotton was exported from New York, the largest single shipment in the history of the cotton business.

The New Orleans Picayune. (La.)

It probably matters very little whether Spain would be willing to grant autonomy or not, as there

is little chance that the insurgents would accept any such settlement as the basis upon which the revolution should end. Having been able to hold out so long against the great odds the Spaniards have brought against them, the Cubans appear to be resolved that nothing short of absolute independence will prove acceptable.

Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

A few months ago public opinion was quite unanimous in Spain on the subject of resisting to the uttermost the efforts of the loyal Cubans for immediate reforms as well as the struggle of the insurgents for autonomy. There is now a growing disposition to admit that the proposed administrative reforms should be applied to Cuba at once without waiting for the suppression of the insurrection.

ALBERT S. WILLIS, MINISTER TO HAWAII.



ALBERT S. WILLIS.
Late United States Minister to Hawaii.

DEATH following upon a long siege of pneumonia on January 6 closed the illustrious career of United States Minister to Hawaii Albert Sydney Willis. He was born about fifty-five years ago near Shelbyville, Ky., where he spent his early childhood. When about twelve years of age he lost his father by death, and after his mother's marriage with Mr. J. L. Clemmons, an attorney of Louisville, Ky., the lad was sent to the public schools of that city. Upon his graduation from the Louisville high school he taught school and at the same time studied law. In 1866 he graduated from the Louisville law school and entered upon the practise of his profession. Having been made county attorney early in the seventies he served in that capacity until his election to Congress in 1876 as successor to Mr. Henry Watterson. In the same year, 1876, occurred his marriage to Miss Florence Bulaney. Mr. Willis was a staunch supporter of Mr. Carlisle, and when the latter became speaker in the Forty-eighth Congress he gave Mr. Willis the chairmanship of the Rivers and Harbors Committee. After serving five terms in Congress Mr. Willis in 1886 resumed his law practise in Louisville. His appointment

as minister to Hawaii was given him in September, 1893, and he took up the duties of his new post at one of the most critical moments in the history of the island, just when Liliuokalani had been deposed and the monarchy replaced by a new government. Upon his death the flags of the Hawaiian government were hung at half-mast and a state funeral was given him in Honolulu, where his remains were laid in the tomb to remain until they can be sent home. He is survived by his wife and son.

Harrisburg Telegraph. (Pa.)

The death of Minister Willis was directly due to the hard work he did in Hawaii in the interest of the republic. Originally sent to Honolulu to place Queen Lili on the throne, he became disgusted at that erratic female's conduct and at last recognized the republic, aiding and assisting it to the best of his ability. Willis will long be remembered by the people of Hawaii with kindness.

The Mail and Express. (New York, N. Y.)

The honors paid to the memory of the late Minister Willis by the government of Hawaii serve as a dignified and eloquent rebuke to the contemptuous treatment which the representatives of the island

republic have received from the administration at Washington. Mr. Willis was intimately identified with the Cleveland conspiracy to overthrow the Hawaiian Republic and restore the monarchy; he opposed the rise of free institutions in obedience to orders from Washington, and did his utmost to embarrass the new government at Honolulu in its infancy. Yet when he died, far from home and friends, the flags of the young republic were hung at half-mast; the government took charge of his funeral and paid the sincerest tribute to his memory. We do not recall a finer example of self-vindicated manhood, dignity, and fraternal love than that presented in this instance.

PRESIDENT-ELECT M'KINLEY'S CABINET SELECTIONS.

THE members of the new cabinet so far as announced up to the time of going to press are: for secretary of state, United States Senator John Sherman, of Ohio; secretary of the treasury, Lyman J. Gage, president of the First National Bank of Chicago, Ill.; secretary of war, Gen. Russell A. Alger, ex-governor of Michigan; secretary of the navy, ex-Governor John D. Long, of Massachusetts; secretary of the interior, Judge Joseph J. McKenna, of California; secretary of agriculture, ex-Congressman James F. Wilson, of Iowa. The appointment of Hon. J. Addison Porter, editor of *The Post* of Hartford, Conn., to be private secretary to the president has been announced.



HON. JOHN SHERMAN.
For Secretary of State.

(*Rep.*) *Indianapolis Journal.* (*Ind.*)

He is going to have an exceptionally strong cabinet, and evidently is not afraid of being overshadowed. The appointments thus far made meet with universal approval and tend to strengthen the public conviction that he is equal to the situation.



GENERAL RUSSELL A. ALGER.
For Secretary of War.

(*Dem.*) *The Sun.* (*New York, N. Y.*)

The cabinet of Major McKinley will contain one figure of the first importance—John Sherman. The rest of the cabinet list seems to be made up substantially. It confirms the theory that the cabinet

has become and has had to become a collection of men of not the highest political influence, and chosen for personal or local political reasons.

(*Rep.*) *The Denver Republican.* (*Col.*)

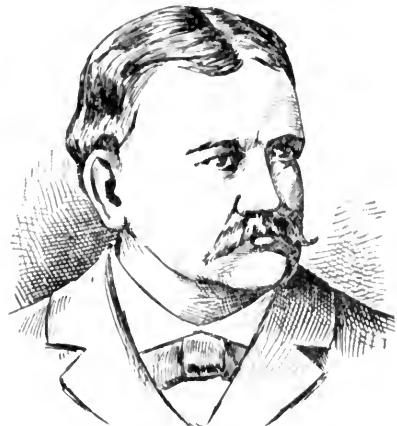
Never before in the history of the country has the



LYMAN J. GAGE.
For Secretary of the Treasury.

competition for cabinet appointments been so open or so much in the nature of ordinary ward politics. (*Rep.*) *The Mail and Express.* (*New York, N. Y.*)

The president elect has, without any apparent effort, fully conformed his conduct to the exigencies of the situation. His cabinet selections have been



JOHN F. LONG.
For Secretary of the Navy.



JUDGE JOSEPH MCKENNA.
For Secretary of the Interior.

such as not only to disarm prejudice but also to inspire confidence.

(*Ind.*) *The Evening Star.* (*Washington, D. C.*)

His party is rich in good cabinet material. If it is true, as reported, that Mr. Sherman and Governor Long and Judge Goff are slated for places the start is an excellent one. They are all men of recognized ability, and two of them have already occupied chairs at the cabinet table.

(*Rep.*) *New York Tribune.* (*N. Y.*)

The announcements thus far made [Sherman and Gage] regarding the selections for the cabinet show that Major McKinley has decided to call to his aid an unusually strong advisory council.

(*Ind.*) *The Chicago Record.* (*Ill.*)

It will be a conscientious and industrious rather

than a distinguished cabinet. The men are level-headed and thoughtful rather than brilliant, but brilliancy is not what the American people are looking for just now.

(*Dem.*) *The Argus.* (*Albany, N. Y.*)

It is evident that the new cabinet, when it assembles, will embrace elements likely to insure lively times from the start. The political indications for March 4 point to a period of low barometer, squalls, and stormy.

(*Rep.*) *The Tribune.* (*Minneapolis, Minn.*)

The selection of both Sherman and Alger as members of President McKinley's official family heals an old political feud in the Republican party and will conduce to that harmony which is so necessary to the success of the administration.



EX-CONGRESSMAN JAMES WILSON.
For Secretary of Agriculture.

FRENCH ELECTIONS.

RETURNS of the French election held on January 3 show that the Radicals, led by Bourgeois, Doumer, Lockroy, and Viger, failed in their attempt to abolish or at least abridge the power of the Senate. The income tax advocated by these Radicals shared their defeat. The newspapers agree in saying that the policy of the Senate, which when complete consists of three hundred members, is not even modified by the election. Of the ninety-seven senators who won the vacated seats, only sixteen are Radicals, sixty-six are Moderates, three Socialists, and twelve Conservatives.

Liberté. (*Paris, France.*)

The majority of the Senate has not changed its character. The Republicans return to the Luxembourg as numerous as they have vacated it. The country has been appealed to against the Senate; its answer is a most marked demonstration in favor of the Senate. It is still regarded as a bulwark of the republican idea. As matters stand, two hundred and twenty senators are arrayed against any attempt to overthrow the constitution. This is, after all, the most important result.

The Figaro. (*Paris, France.*)

A party which, after an unprecedented agitation

against the cabinet, finds only two or three of its hundred candidates elected, has little reason to mount the capitol to render thanks to the gods. Some time will pass ere M. Bourgeois can again figure as the savior of his country.

Siccle. (*Paris, France.*)

The result of the election shows that the country wants neither reaction nor revolution, but is well satisfied with the existing condition of things.

The Speaker. (*London, England.*)

We may, on the whole, be permitted to regret the failure of a movement which would have improved the constitution and the system of taxation

alike. But it was full of incidental dangers, and we are not sure that it was opportune. . . . A ministry which professes to rest on the support of the peasantry is at least less likely to be alarmist and extravagant than a ministry so ignorant of foreign politics as was that of M. Bourgeois.

Times-Union. (Jacksonville, Fla.)

The results of this election indicate very clearly that the French people are not yet prepared for the abolition of the Senate, in spite of the crusade that has been waged against the Second Chamber ever since Gambetta's day.

Kölnische Zeitung. (Cologne, Germany.)

The Senate remains unchanged, but it has won a great moral victory, and can oppose the Chamber of Representatives with much more confidence. . . . We must not close our eyes to the fact that the czar's visit is the main cause of this conservative wave. France has chosen to be led by Russia, and Frenchmen submit to Russia's policy for patriotic reasons.

Handelsblad. (Amsterdam, Holland.)

That the seats lost by the Monarchists did not go to the Republicans is a danger to the Senate.

THE PACIFIC CABLE.

THE question of a Pacific cable is claiming the attention of both England and the United States. In the early part of January the report of the British Cable Commission received the signature of the British, Australian, and Canadian governments. The projected line is to connect Canada, Australia, and New Zealand. It will touch only British territory and will be exclusively under British control. The rumored intention of Great Britain to purchase Necker Island of Hawaii for a cable station has aroused protests from the American press. On January 28 the United States Hawaiian Cable Bill came up for attention in the Senate Steering Committee, which agreed to make it the next subject for consideration. It will be remembered that two plans for a Pacific cable were before the Fifty-fourth Congress. One was the Spaulding proposal, which called for an exclusive concession by Hawaii to a New Jersey company. The other was made by the Pacific Cable Company of New York. It proposed to extend its cable on beyond Hawaii to China and Japan. On January 28 it was announced at San Diego, Cal., that the latter company had selected a site at Point Loma, Cal., for the American terminus of the line and was negotiating for a station in Hawaii.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

The British have a perfect right to lay the cable and operate it for their own advantage. No other power has any right to object, or to ask questions about it, or to do aught but pay the tribute due to British enterprise. But the one question this nation may well ask of itself is whether such a cable would not be a good thing for the United States too; nay, whether it ought not to be reckoned a necessity.

The Evening Post. (N. Y.)

What the poor Hawaiians want is, of course, altogether a secondary consideration. They exist only to be annexed and have cables landed on their terri-

tory. It may be worth saying, however, merely as a matter of curiosity, that they are heartily opposed to any such cable monopoly as is being urged at Washington. The Spaulding concession, which will lapse in a month or two, the Hawaiian government refused to extend or amplify when ex-Secretary Foster was sent to the islands in November to secure a new contract.

The Denver Republican. (Col.)

The United States should watch its interests in the Orient and the Pacific, and to do so effectually it should have complete control of the Hawaiian Islands, and they should also be connected with this country by cable.

THE NEW UNITED STATES SENATORS.

TWENTY-SIX of the elections necessary to fill the seats of the thirty senators whose terms expire on March 4 have been held, with the following results: In the New England States Senators Jacob H. Gallinger (Rep.) of New Hampshire, Justin S. Morrill (Rep.) of Vermont, and Orville H. Platt (Rep.) of Connecticut were reelected. In the Middle States Senator David B. Hill (Dem.) of New York will be replaced by Thomas C. Platt (Rep.); Senator James Donald Cameron (Rep.) of Pennsylvania by Boies Penrose (Rep.); Senator Charles H. Gibson (Dem.) of Maryland by Mr. Wellington (Rep.). The contest in Delaware over the unseating of Senator Henry A. Dupont (Rep.) resulted in the installation of General Richard R. Kenney (Dem.) as senator. In the Southern States Senator Jeter C. Pritchard (Rep.) was reelected by the fusion legislature in North Carolina on the understanding that he would support the free coinage of silver at the ratio of 16 to 1; Senator John L. M. Irby (Dem.) of South Carolina will give place to Judge Joseph H. Earle (Dem.); Senator John B. Gordon (Dem.) of Georgia to Mr. Clay (Dem.).

The election in Florida to decide upon a successor to Senator Wilkinson Call (Dem.) will not be held till April. In Kentucky an election has not yet taken place for the seat held by Senator Joseph C. S. Blackburn (Dem.). Alabama's senator, James L. Pugh (Dem.), gives place to Mr. Pettus (Dem.), and Louisiana's senator, Newton C. Blanchard (Dem.), to Mr. McEnery (Dem.), who is a moderate protectionist. Senator James K. Jones (Dem.) of Arkansas was reelected. Of the Central States' elections, that in Ohio returns Joseph B. Foraker (Rep.) to the Senate in place of Senator Calvin S. Brice (Dem.); that in Indiana returns Mr. Charles Fairbanks (Rep.) in place of Senator Daniel W. Voorhees (Dem.); that of Illinois sends William E. Mason (Rep.) instead of Senator John McA. Palmer (Dem.); in Wisconsin John G. Spooner (Rep.) will succeed Senator William F. Vilas (Dem.); Senators William B. Allison (Rep.) of Iowa and George G. Vest (Dem.) of Missouri are reelected; Senator William A. Peffer (Pop.) of Kansas gives place to Colonel W. A. Harris (Pop.), and in North Dakota Senator Henry C. Hansbrough (Rep.) is reelected. It is not yet determined who will succeed Senator James H. Kyle (Pop.) of South Dakota. In the Pacific Highland and Coast division of states Colorado reelects Senator Henry M. Teller (Sil.). Senator John P. Jones (Sil.) of Nevada is reelected. Senator George C. Perkins (Rep.) of California is reelected. In Oregon the political forces are at a deadlock. In Idaho Senator Fred T. Dubois (Sil. Rep.) will be replaced by Henry Heinfelt (Pop.). In Washington Senator Watson C. Squire's (Rep.) successor is G. F. Turner (Sil. Rep.).

(Rep.) *New York Tribune.* (N. Y.)

It would indeed be a strange ending of the patriotic professions made by National Democrats if they should so vote as to assist the silver men in another raid upon the treasury, thus doing incalculable injury to business and industry. But there are other Democrats . . . whose power to defeat the worst features of the Wilson Bill was unflinchingly exerted, and who would flagrantly defy the will of their constituents if they should refuse to support a measure for the defense and restoration of industries.

(Ind.) *The Times-Democrat.* (New Orleans, La.)

It is a pity that, the executive and the House of Representatives being Republican, the Senate will not also be Republican. The country would much

sooner experience a satiety of Republican legislation if the G. O. P. could load down the statute-book as they liked.

(Dem.) *The Sun.* (New York, N. Y.)

At the opening of the Fifty-fifth Congress on March 4 there will be more new faces in the Senate than were ever before seen at any one time in the history of that body.

(Ind.) *Times-Union.* (Jacksonville, Fla.)

It is more than likely that during the next administration, as during the present one, there will be no real cooperation between the executive and the Congress, such cooperation being made impossible by the inability of the Republicans to effectively control the Senate.

QUEEN VICTORIA'S SPEECH.

UPON the opening of Parliament, on January 19, the members of the House of Commons repaired as usual to the House of Lords for the reading of the queen's speech by the lord chancellor. In this document the queen declares that England's relations to all other powers continue to be friendly, that the conferences of the six ambassadors to the Porte are still proceeding, and that the operations so successful in Dongola will be pushed on farther when deemed advisable. She refers to the Venezuela agreement and expresses gratification with the treaty for general arbitration concluded with the president of the United States. She also touches on the rebellion in Matabeleland and Mashonaland, on the depressed condition of the sugar industry in the West Indian colonies seriously affecting their prosperity, and on the famine and plague in India. Regarding the estimates for the year the speech says: "While desirous of guarding against undue expenditure, I have felt that the present condition of the world will not permit you to depart from the spirit of prudent foresight in which you have during recent years provided for the defense of the empire." Among the bills announced to be introduced are those dealing with education, compensation to working people for accidents, and provisions for military defenses, bills admitting the evidence of accused persons, amending the Agricultural Holdings Act in Great Britain, excluding of goods manufactured in prisons in other countries, and amending the existing procedure in respect of private bills coming from Scotland and Ireland.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

Practically, the government merely says it is doing the best it can, but without much prospect of immediate improvement. Such, and such only, is the report made in the speech on the condition of

the empire and the activities of the government since Parliament was last in session.

The Denver Republican. (Col.)

Very little is said about the famine and plague in India. Those disasters should have received more

attention, and there should have been a declaration that the government intends to ask of Parliament an appropriation sufficient to meet the needs of those suffering British subjects.

The Providence Journal. (R. I.)

Her British Majesty's speech in opening Parliament was as calm and formal as usual. There are some pleasant words, of course, about the arrangements now in progress for the peaceful settlement of differences between Great Britain and the United States, and in these words there is, no doubt, a truthful reflection of the feelings of the English people.

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

The most important incident which followed the reading of the queen's speech in Parliament on Tuesday was the reference made by Mr. A. J. Balfour in the House of Commons to the Irish taxation question. He said that the government in-

tended to deal with the taxation question, but the method of dealing with it which he indicated would be satisfactory to no section of the Irish people.

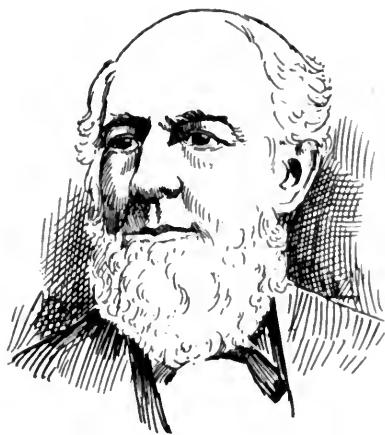
The Philadelphia Inquirer. (Pa.)

The perfunctory character of a queen's speech was never more fully illustrated than in that of Victoria on Tuesday last, when all the reference to the Turkish question and the Armenian massacres was that "the conferences of the six ambassadors to the Porte are still proceeding."

The Mail and Express. (New York, N. Y.)

Of all the sublime events which have distinguished the long and beneficent reign of Victoria there has been none which bore a nobler significance to mankind than the simple message in which the venerable queen yesterday announced to the assembled houses of Parliament the completion of a general arbitration treaty between Great Britain and the United States.

SIR ISAAC PITMAN.



SIR ISAAC PITMAN.

Inventor of the Pitman System of Stenography.

founded the Phonetic Society and later the Phonetic Institute. The latter place is where he published his many manuals and text-books; there he printed his own instruction books, edited and printed the *Phonetic Journal*, and also published, all in shorthand, about eighty volumes, including the Bible and "Rasselas." At an international shorthand congress held in London in 1887 Mr. Pitman received recognition for his work in the form of two gold medals presented respectively by the stenographers of the United States and those of Great Britain and the colonies. In 1894 he was knighted by Queen Victoria in reward for his useful labors.

Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

The death of Sir Isaac Pitman—very properly knighted for the service rendered to humanity by his improvements in phonetic writing—will remind the world that this now generally used system is of modern origin. There was shorthand writing long before Pitman's day and there have been great improvements made by his successors; but he is credited with the invention of the basic principle of

the various systems now in use, and therefore is regarded as the originator of the art in its present form.

The Chicago Evening Post. (Ill.)

The New Woman should erect a monument to Isaac Pitman, the inventor of the standard system of shorthand. If any one gave her more assistance in the way of getting into the business world we do not recall the name.

ANNUAL MEETING OF THE CHAUTAUQUA BOARD OF TRUSTEES.

At their twenty-fifth annual meeting, held January 15 at Buffalo, N. Y., the trustees of Chautauqua Assembly were encouraged in their business transactions by the financial report for 1896 presented by the secretary, Dr. W. A. Duncan. The figures show that the Assembly of '96 compares favorably with that of any former year. There were present at this meeting Hon. Lewis Miller, of Akron, O., president of the board of trustees, Clem Studebaker of South Bend, Ind., R. A. Miller of Canton, O., Dr. W. A. Duncan of Syracuse, N. Y., E. A. Skinner of Westfield, N. Y., Dr. W. R. Harper of Chicago, Ill., William Thomas of Meadville, Pa., W. T. Dunn of Pittsburg, Pa., Dr. J. T. Edwards of McDonogh, Md., Frederick W. Hyde of Jamestown, N. Y., W. H. Shortt of Youngsville, Pa., E. G. Dusenbury of Portville, N. Y., Wilson M. Day of Cleveland, O. In addition to these there was Vice-Chancellor George E. Vincent of Chicago. Letters of regret were read from Trustees F. H. Rockwell of Warren, Pa., Jesse Smith of Titusville, Pa., Senator F. W. Higgins of Olean, N. Y., John Brown of Chicago, Chester Massey of Toronto, and William M. Clark of Liberty, Ind. Mr. Charles A. Sweet of Buffalo, N. Y., was elected trustee in the place of Mr. Clark of Liberty, Ind., resigned, and the following officers were elected for 1897: president, Lewis Miller, Akron, O.; first vice-president, Clem Studebaker, South Bend, Ind.; second vice-president, E. G. Dusenbury, Portville, N. Y.; third vice-president, Dr. J. T. Edwards, McDonogh, Md.; chancellor, Bishop John H. Vincent, Topeka, Kan.; secretary and superintendent, Dr. W. A. Duncan, Syracuse, N. Y.; treasurer, E. A. Skinner, Westfield, N. Y.; executive committee, W. H. Shortt, J. T. Edwards, William Thomas, Wilson M. Day, R. A. Miller, F. W. Hyde.; finance committee, William Thomas, E. G. Dusenbury, F. W. Hyde.

The Jamestown Journal. (N. Y.)

The rich results achieved by Chautauqua last year give promise of even better success in the field of popular education the coming year. The year 1896 was distinguished by extraordinary dullness in commercial circles and feverishness in the political world. But Chautauqua forged to the front as usual, and scored a prosperous season. The schools of Chautauqua were attended by 2,146 students in

1896, a gain of 405 over the previous year. The same year there were 178 lectures and addresses, 10 sermons, 62 concerts, 19 readings, 13 entertainments, 37 receptions, and 13 baseball matches. And this opulent program was all to be enjoyed for a \$5 ticket. Was there ever such a wealth of instruction and entertainment, all of the highest order, for a trifling outlay? But great and varied as was the program last year, that of 1897 will be even better.

THE NATION'S EXPORTS AND IMPORTS.

The Chicago Record. (Ill.)

THE remarkable feature of the year 1896 in business has been the enormous export trade of the country. The volume of this trade has been excessively heavy in the closing months of the year. For December the excess of exports from the United States over imports was \$59,271,093; for the twelve months the excess was \$325,322,184, the largest in the history of the country. The previous highest excess of exports over imports was in 1879, when the figures were \$264,661,666. For 1892 the figures were \$202,875,686. The total value of the export trade for 1896 was \$1,005,878,417, which is the largest total for any calendar year in the history of the country. The figures for the fiscal year 1892 were slightly larger, being \$1,030,278,148, but it is probable that the figures for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1897, will exceed the mark reached in 1892.

While the exports for 1896 show such a heavy increase over those of 1895 the imports have fallen but little for the same period. Below is given in tabular form the exports for 1896 and 1895, the excess of exports over imports, and the imports:

EXPORTS.			
	December.	Twelve mos.	
1896.....	\$117,227,102	\$1,005,878,417	
1895.....	92,529,117	824,860,136	
Increase.....	\$24,697,985	\$181,018,281	
EXPORTS OVER IMPORTS.			
	December.	Twelve mos.	
1896.....	\$59,271,093	\$325,322,184	
1895.....	30,328,070	23,190,789	
IMPORTS.			
1896.....		\$780,556,233	
1895.....		801,679,347	
Decrease.....		\$21,123,114	

The excess of gold imports over exports for the calendar year just closed was \$46,023,594.

The phenomenally heavy export trade of the present time is likened to the conditions prevailing in 1879, for the industrial prosperity of that period was largely based on the immense expansion of the export trade. Then, as now, the revival of business which was confidently expected was delayed for a time, but when it came it was substantial in nature.

SUMMARY OF NEWS.

HOME.

January 9. National Democratic leaders convene in Chicago, Ill., General Buckner presiding.

January 11. The Senate amends and ratifies extradition treaties between the United States and the Orange Free State and the Argentine Republic.—Presidential electors cast their votes in the several states.

January 12. "Commonwealers" convene at St. Louis, Mo., J. S. Coxe presiding, and organize the "United States party," to succeed the "People's party."—The Deep Waterways Commission appointed in 1895 reports to Secretary Olney recommending the appropriation of \$250,000 for surveys for a ship canal between the United States and Canada.—United States and Canada missionary societies convene in New York.—A convention of the International Bricklayers and Plasterers' Union is held at Worcester, Mass.

January 13. The Wool Manufacturers' Association assembles at New York.—General Carlos Roloff, secretary of war of the "Cuban Republic," is arrested in New York charged with aiding a filibustering expedition.

January 14. The Oklahoma Free Homesteads Bill passes the Senate.

January 18. Judge Locke of the United States court of Jacksonville, Fla., decides that the steamer *Three Friends* in bearing aid to the Cubans does not violate the neutrality laws since our government has not recognized "a state of war."—The South Carolina dispensary law is decided by the United States Supreme Court to be unconstitutional in so far as it prohibits a citizen's importing liquor for his own use.

January 19. A convention summoned by Governor Mitchell of Florida, is held at Tampa, Fla., to consider harbor improvements and fortifications on the southern coast.

January 22. The Greater Republic of Central America protests through its minister against the Nicaragua Canal bills pending in the Senate.—The bill providing for a new division of the Eastern Judicial District of Texas is passed by the House over the president's veto.

January 26. The Ohio Supreme Court adjudges the collateral inheritance tax constitutional.

January 29. The governor of Nevada signs a bill legalizing glove contests.

January 30. Secretary of State Olney and Sir Julian Pauncefote sign a treaty for the settlement of the Alaskan boundary.

January 31. Proceedings against the steamer

Three Friends for piracy are begun by the United States district attorney at Jacksonville, Fla., under instruction of Attorney-General Harmon.

February 2. The state capitol of Pennsylvania is destroyed by fire.

FOREIGN.

January 6. The Miners' Federation of Great Britain passes a resolution declaring in favor of the nationalization of mines, land, and railways.

January 8. The Most Rev. Dr. Temple is enthroned as Archbishop of Canterbury and Primate of all England.

January 9. Senator Wolcott, of Colorado, arrives in London to confer with leading bimetalists in England and invite them to an international monetary conference to be held in Washington in the year 1897.

January 12. M. Brisson is reelected president of the French Chamber of Deputies.

January 16. A mandament condemning the Manitoba schools settlement is issued by Bishop Begin.

January 18. The Earl of Kimberly is made leader of the Liberal party in the English House of Lords.

January 19. Lord Salisbury removes the last barrier to the signing of the Venezuela treaty by consenting to the nomination by the Venezuela government of one of the members of the board of arbitration.—Several villages at Delvino, in Turkish Epirus, are destroyed by an earthquake.—John Dillon is reelected leader of the Irish National party.

January 21. Two thousand five hundred persons lose their lives in an earthquake on an island of the Persian Gulf.

January 25. Mr. Balfour states in the House of Commons that the government is not likely to take the initiative for an international monetary conference.

January 28. Count Muravieff, Russia's minister of foreign affairs, is welcomed with honors in Paris by the president of France.

January 29. Mr. and Mrs. Gladstone depart from England *en route* to Cannes, France.

January 31. Hostilities have been renewed in Crete.

NECROLOGY.

January 11. M. Cordier, a life senator of France.

January 15. Sir Travers Twiss, English jurisconsult.

January 22. Comte de Remusat, French author.

C. L. S. C. OUTLINE AND PROGRAMS.

OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING.

FOR MARCH.

First Week (ending March 4).

- "A Survey of Greek Civilization." Chapter IV.
 "A Study of the Sky." Chapters XIII. and XIV.
 and Chapter V. to page 81.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN :

"Homeric Art."

Sunday Reading for February 28.

Second Week (ending March 11).

- "A Survey of Greek Civilization." Chapter V. to
 page 149.
 "A Study of the Sky." Chapter XV. and Chapter
 V. pages 81 and 82.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN :

"The Story of the Iliad."

"The Story of the Odyssey."

Sunday Reading for March 7.

Third Week (ending March 18).

- "A Survey of Greek Civilization." Chapter V. con-
 cluded.
 "A Study of the Sky." Chapter XVI. and Chap-
 ter V. pages 83 and 84.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN :

"The Homeric Poems."

Sunday Reading for March 14.

Fourth Week (ending March 25).

- "A Survey of Greek Civilization." Chapter VI.
 to page 187.
 "A Study of the Sky." Chapter XVII. and Chap-
 ter V. page 85.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN :

"The Women of Homer."

Sunday Reading for March 21.

Fifth Week (ending April 1).

- "A Survey of Greek Civilization." Chapter VI.
 concluded.
 "A Study of the Sky." Chapter XVIII. and Chap-
 ter V. from page 85 to page 87.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN :

"The Homeric Age."

Sunday Reading for March 28.

FOR APRIL.

First Week (ending April 8).

- "A Survey of Greek Civilization." Chapter VII.
 "A History of Greek Art." Chapter I.
 "A Study of the Sky." Page 87. "Boötes."

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN :

"Paris the Magnificent."

Sunday Reading for April 4.

SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLE WORK.

FOR MARCH.

FIRST WEEK.

1. Select Reading—"The Conjunction of Jupiter
 and Venus," by Bryant.
2. A Talk—A trip to Mars.
3. A Paper—Constantinople.
4. Historical Sketch—The Persian Wars.
5. A Study—The Athenians and Spartans.

SECOND WEEK.

SOCRATES DAY.—MARCH 5.

Good men are the stars, the planets of the ages wherein they
 live, and illustrate the times.—*Ben Jonson.*

1. Roll Call—Each response to be a quotation re-
 lating to Socrates from "A History of Greek
 Civilization."
2. A Paper—Socrates as a man.
3. A Talk—Socrates as a philosopher.
4. Essay—The age to which Socrates belonged.
5. Essay—Philosophers contemporaneous with
 Socrates.

THIRD WEEK.

1. Roll Call—The response to be a curious fact
 learned from the lesson.
2. Literary Analysis—"In Memoriam," by Lord
 Tennyson.
3. A Paraphrase—The story of Elaine as told by
 Lord Tennyson in "Lancelot and Elaine."
4. Historical Study—The Peloponnesian War.
5. General Discussion—American manufacturing
 interests.*

FOURTH WEEK.

1. Roll Call.—The response to be an item of im-
 portant news.
2. General Conversation—The Milky Way as ob-
 served by the members of the circle.
3. Select Reading—"A Dream of Fair Women,"
 by Lord Tennyson.
4. Essay—The life and works of Xenophon.
5. A Talk—The commerce of the United States.*

* See *Current History and Opinion.*

FIFTH WEEK.

1. Essay—Marathon and Chæroneæ.
2. A Paper—Philip, king of Macedon.
3. A Review—The constellations studied during the month.
4. Discussion—Hygienic living. See "The Science of the Morning Fast" in the February and current numbers of THE CHAUTAUQUAN.
5. General Discussion—International arbitration.*

* See *Current History and Opinion*.

FOR APRIL.

FIRST WEEK.

1. Essay—Modern philosophers.
2. Historical Study—The emperor Hadrian and his reign.
3. Essay—The important periods of Egyptian history.
4. A Study in Ancient History—Babylonia and Assyria.
5. A Talk—The news of the week.

C. L. S. C. NOTES AND WORD STUDIES.

ON REQUIRED READING FOR MARCH.

THIS impression of THE CHAUTAUQUAN, the Homer number, is a continuation of the plan announced some time ago of issuing four special numbers during the year 1896-97—a plan partially executed by the previous publication of the Molière and the French literature numbers. In this number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN the Homeric poems, the Iliad and the Odyssey, with the most important questions arising from their consideration, are ably presented by scholars and writers who have made these epics special subjects for investigation. These works are studied not only as representing the highest classic literature produced by poetic genius but as presenting to us pictures of intellectual and political life during a period in the history of Greece for which we have no authentic historical record and from which have emanated influences affecting the culture of the present century. The specific study of the Iliad and the Odyssey in THE CHAUTAUQUAN so coordinates with the discussion found in one of the books being read this month, "A Survey of Greek Civilization," by J. P. Mahaffy, D.D., D.C.L., the eminent Greek scholar, that the C. L. S. C. readers may obtain a lasting impression of the remarkable age which these poems represent.

Though the reading of the main portion of the text of "A Study of the Sky" is completed this month, the study of the constellations will continue to the close of the C. L. S. C. year. The practical value of the description of the planets contained in the text-book is much increased by the following notes, in which the author, Herbert A. Howe, A.M., Sc.D., director of the Chamberlin Observatory, tells where to find these interesting bodies during the first six months of the year:

The constellations of Taurus, Gemini, Leo, and Scorpio, to which reference is made, are pictured in "A Study of the Sky," on pages 73, 80, 86, and 102 respectively.

Venus.

One who looks at the western sky early in the

evening cannot fail to notice the splendor of Venus, the evening star. According to the nautical almanac the date of its greatest apparent angular distance from the sun is February 16. After that, week after week finds it apparently nearer and nearer to the sun. On April 28 it finally gets into line between the earth and the sun, and becomes invisible to us. Its time of greatest brilliancy is March 21, when it can be seen with the naked eye in full sunshine. During May and June it is a morning star, rising about twenty degrees north of the east point of the horizon, before the sun does. Its greatest brightness as morning star occurs on June 3.

Mercury.

The best time to see Mercury is during the last week of April and the first week of May. It should be looked for in the twilight, since it sets about an hour and a quarter after the sun. It is to be found by looking low down a third of the way from the west point of the horizon around toward the north point. During these two weeks it passes between the Pleiades and the bright red star Aldebaran, which lies at the left of it, as we face that portion of the heavens. No other object equaling either of these in brightness is in their vicinity.

Mars.

After having been in the constellation of Taurus, between the Bull's horns, during January and February, Mars concludes to move out. On March 1 it is almost in line between Beta and Zeta, which mark the tips of the Bull's horns. A month later the planet is well over into Gemini, its eastern motion continues, and on May 15 it is in line with Castor and Pollux, about ten degrees from the latter. On March 28 it is in the naked-eye cluster of Præsepe, the Beehive. By the end of June it arrives in Leo, and during the first week in July it is near the bright star Regulus, being only one and a half moon-breadths away on July 5. Mars is easily recognized by its brightness and orange hue.

Jupiter.

Jupiter rules the eastern sky, as does Venus the western, in the early evening. On March 1 it rises a few minutes after 5 p. m. It does not travel as swiftly among the stars as does Mars. Up to April 26 it is east of Regulus, in Leo, and is moving slowly toward that star. After April 26 it moves eastward, but even at the end of June it is only seven or eight degrees east of Regulus. Jupiter is a good deal brighter than Mars, though not so bright as Venus. A good opera-glass will show four of his five moons.

Saturn.

Saturn is a morning star until March 7, and may best be seen in the southeast, before the morning twilight becomes too strong. It is near the star Beta of the Scorpion. It is fainter than the other planets which we have mentioned, but yet is brighter than any fixed star in its immediate neighborhood; it is of a pronounced yellowish cast, and does not twinkle. On March 7 it rises about twenty-five degrees south of the east point of the horizon at midnight, and at the close of June is found directly in the south, one third of the way from the horizon to the zenith, at 9 p. m.

Uranus.

Uranus is just visible to a good eye on a moonless night. It is in the vicinage of Saturn during the year. The best time to find it is in the middle of June. On June 18 it is directly underneath Saturn, two degrees (four moon-breadths) from it.

Neptune.

Slow-footed Neptune, the faint outpost of the planetary system, is too dim for the naked eye. During the first six months of the year it is a few degrees west of Zeta Tauri, which marks the tip of the lower horn of the Bull. At the end of June it is between two and a half and three degrees from that star.

"A STUDY OF THE SKY."

P. 234. "Schiaparelli" [skyä-pä-rē'lē]. An Italian astronomer born in 1835.

P. 247. "Bode" [bō'de] (1747-1826).

P. 247. "Piazzi" [pē-ät'sē] (1746-1826).

P. 248. "Gauss" [gowss] (1777-1855).

P. 250. "Fides" [fī'dēz].—"Maia" [mä'yä].

P. 260. "Huyghens" [hī'genz] (1629-1695).

P. 262. "Cassini" [käs-sē'nē] (1625-1712). An Italian astronomer who discovered four satellites of Saturn. He first advocated the theory that what Huyghens called "the ring" of Saturn was really composed of two rings, one inside the other, the division being indicated by the black streaks which he saw in the ring.

P. 269. "Leverrier" [le-vā-ryä'] (1811-1877).

P. 270. "Galle" [gäl'le]. A German astronomer born in 1812.

P. 273. "Attaché" [ä-tä-shä'].

P. 274. "Outré." Exaggerated; unreasonable.

P. 280. "Geissler tube." An apparatus invented by Heinrich Geissler, consisting of a sealed tube with platinum at each end through which electrical discharges are transmitted to the gaseous contents of the tube. The color of the light depends upon the gas confined in the tube.

P. 280. "Paré [pä-rä'].

P. 281. Biela's comet was discovered in 1826 by an Austrian military officer, Wilhelm von Biela.

P. 296. The "Giant's Causeway" is on the northeast coast of Ireland. It is a platform composed of a series of columnar rocks from 15 feet to 36 feet high, which extends from a cliff down into the sea below low-water mark.

P. 296. "Punjab." A territory in northern India through which the Indus River and several of its tributaries pass. It was annexed by Great Britain in 1849.

P. 325. "Cysatus." (1588-1657). A Swiss astronomer.

"A SURVEY OF GREEK CIVILIZATION."

P. 107. "Polybius [po-lib'i-us]. A Greek historian who died about 125 B. C. Among his works was a history of Rome in forty books, five of which have been preserved.

P. 107. "Chalcedon" [kal-sē'don].

P. 108. "Italiot" [i-tal'i-ot]. A term used in ancient history to denote that which belongs to the Greeks who founded settlements in southern Italy.

P. 112. "Gelon" [jē'lon]. This tyrant died about 478 B. C.

P. 113. "Sicyon" [sish'on]. A city of ancient Greece northwest of Corinth.

P. 115. "Copais" [kō-pā'is]. A lake of Bœotia the modern name of which is Topolias.—"Euripus" [ū-rī'pus].

P. 117. The "Olympieion," or Olympieum, according to English orthography, is the temple of Olympian Zeus founded by Pisistratus. The temple, measuring 134 by 353½ feet, was Corinthian in style, having 8 columns on each front and 20 on each side.

P. 118. "Alcmæonidæ" [alk-mē-on'i-de]. A noble family of Athens which was banished for sacrilege about 596 B. C.

P. 122. "Artabazus" [är-ta-bā'zus]. A Persian general who took part in the campaigns of 480 and 479 B. C.—"Grouchy" [groo-shē'].

P. 125. "Diodorus Siculus" was a Greek historian of the last half of the first century B. C.—"Apollonius Rhodius," born about 235 B. C., was a writer of epic poetry.

P. 125. "Welcker" [vel'ker]. A German archaeologist and philologist.—"Guignaut," also spelled Guigniaut [gen-ye-ō']. A French antiquary.

P. 125. "Maistre" [mätr].—"Quinet" [kē-nä'].

P. 126. "Euemerus" [ū-em'e-rus]. A Greek philosopher who lived in the last half of the fourth century B. C.—"La vérité," etc. The truth of the fables or the history of the gods of antiquity.

P. 131. "Temple at Pæstum." See "A History of Greek Art," page 91.

P. 138. "Dio Chrysostom" was a Greek rhetorician born about the middle of the first century. —"Lucian," a Greek satirist and humorist, lived in the second century.

P. 141. "Epidamnus." The ancient name of Durazzo, a town of Turkey on the Adriatic coast founded by Corcyreans about 625 B. C.

P. 146. "Panathenæa" [pan-ath-ē-nē'ā]. See the note on page 497 of THE CHAUTAUQUAN for January.

P. 146. "Mnesicles" [nē'sik-lēz].

P. 146. "Pont-du-Gard." The bridge of the aqueduct at Nîmes which spanned the valley of the Gard River by three rows of arches. The arches of the first and second rows had a span of 60 feet; in the upper row were 36 smaller arches.

P. 148. "Erechtheum" [ē-rek-thē'um]. An Ionic temple at Athens. See pages 98, 99, and 100 of "A History of Greek Art."

P. 150. "Laurium." A mountain in the extreme southeastern part of Attica, noted in ancient times for its silver mines.

P. 157. "Brasidas" [bras'i-das]. A Spartan general in the Peloponnesian War.—"Callicratidas." The successor of Lysander as admiral of the Lacedæmonian fleet.

P. 162. "Ceramicus" [ser-a-mī'kus]. A large area so called because it was frequented by potters, who were attracted by the excellent clay and the presence of water. One division, called the Inner Ceramicus, was within the walls, and the other, the Outer Ceramicus, was without the walls, and it became the place of burial for those Athenians who were honored with a public funeral.

P. 168. "Cunaxa" [kū-nak'sa]. A place in the valley of the Euphrates, probably less than one hundred miles northwest of Babylon.

P. 169. "Condottiere" [kon-dot-tiā' re]. Professional military leaders, or captains, who, in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, sold their services and those of the troops they raised to countries carrying on war.

P. 176. "Gorgias" [gor'ji-as]. A celebrated Greek rhetorician and sophist. He died about 380 B. C.—"Protagoras." A Greek sophist, born about 481 B. C.—"Parmenides" [par-men'i-dēz]. A philosopher who lived about 450 B. C.

P. 184. "Praxiteles" [praks-it'e-lēz].

P. 184. "Pandeian pipes." "A primitive musical instrument consisting of a graduated series of tubes of cane, wood, metal, or stone, closed at the lower end, the tone being produced by blowing with the breath across the upper end."

P. 185. "Tanagra." An ancient town a few miles northwest of Athens.—"Myrina" [mi-rī'nā]. A necropolis in Asia Minor, near Smyrna, which after Tanagra has yielded the largest number of terra-cotta figurines.—"Tralles" [tral'ēz]. A city of Asia Minor a few miles southeast of Ephesus, near the Meander River.—"Ialysos," or Ialysus, is on the island of Rhodes.

P. 191. "Le roi s'amuse." The king amuses himself.

P. 192. "Amphictyonic Synod." The synod of the amphictyons, members of a league called an amphictyony and formed by peoples inhabiting neighboring territories for mutual protection and the worship of some deity whose temple was considered the common property and under the common guardianship of all. There were several of these leagues but the one which was most famous and to which the name is usually applied was that of Delphi.

P. 194. "Delphian Pylæa." The assembly hall of the Amphictyonic Council.

P. 199. "Hypereides" [hī-per-i' dēz]. An orator probably contemporary with Demosthenes.

P. 199. "Demades" [de ma' dēz]. An orator and demagogue put to death about 319 B. C.

P. 199. "Deinarchus." An ancient Attic orator.

REQUIRED READING IN "THE CHAUTAUQUAN"

"HOMERIC ART."

1. "Polygnotus" [pol-ig-nō'tus]. A Greek painter who lived about the middle of the fifth century B. C.

2. "Esquiline Mount." One of the seven hills of ancient Rome.

3. "Flaxman." An English sculptor and draftsman. He made illustrations of the Odyssey and one of the most celebrated of his works is the "Shield of Achilles."—"Thorwaldsen" [tor'waldsen]. A Danish sculptor of this century.

4. "Prellers." German artists.

5. "Frederick Barbarossa." An early ruler of

Germany and the most noted emperor of the Holy Roman Empire, crowned at Rome in 1155.

6. "Hephæstus" [he-fes'tus]. The god of fire and the forge, known also by the Latin name Vulcan. He was the son of Jupiter and Juno, and artists picture him as a bearded man wearing a one-sleeved tunic and a pointed cap, engaged in work at his anvil.

7. "Scheria." [skē'ri-a]. A mythical island mentioned in the Odyssey as the home of the Phæacians.

8. "Megaron." From a Greek word meaning a large room. Specifically, the large central hall in

the ancient Homeric palace. In the large houses there was usually one *megaron* for the men and guests and another for the women belonging to the household.

9. "Cyclopean citadel." A citadel constructed of very large stones sometimes unhewn or quite irregular in shape and often very perfectly fitted together. Masonry of this kind was denominated cyclopean because it was reputed to be the work of the Cyclopes.

10. The statue of "Olympian Zeus," the greatest work of Phidias, was supposed to have been about 42 feet high. It represented Zeus seated on a throne with a Victory in his hand. "The flesh was of ivory and the drapery of gold, with inlaid or inscribed decoration. The throne itself, which rose above the head of the statue, was elaborately carved and decorated to the very top."

"THE HOMERIC POEMS."

1. "Santa Croce" [săn'tă krō'che]. A church in Florence, Italy, the foundation of which was laid in 1294. It is sometimes called the Pantheon or Westminster Abbey of Florence.

2. "Cypria" [sip'ri-ă]. A poem which belonged to the Trojan cycle serving as an introduction to the Iliad. Its theme is the first nine years of the siege of Troy.

3. "Nostoi." A Greek word meaning home-comings; an epic poem of the Trojan cycle.

"THE WOMEN OF HOMER."

1. "Ares" [ă'rēz]. The god of war and typical of the tumult, disorder, violence, and destruction he calls forth.

2. "Scæan gate" [sē'an]. "Scæan" is derived from the Greek word *skaios*, meaning left, also western: the western gate of Troy.

3. "Artemis." According to Greek mythology, the twin sister of Apollo and goddess of the moon and of the chase. Artists have represented her as being dressed in a short hunting costume with a crescent on her head, armed with a bow and carrying a quiver full of arrows at her side.

"THE HOMERIC AGE."

1. "Amphiaraus" [am-fi-a-ră'us]. A seer and hero of Argos who, according to Greek mythological tales, joined the Argonautic expedition and took part in the famous hunt of the Calydonian Boar.

2. "Dodona" [dō-dō'na]. An ancient city of Epirus in which there was a temple dedicated to Jupiter, where the oracle, the Speaking Oak, uttered mysterious prophecies.

3. "Xenophanes" [ze-nof'-a-nēz]. A Greek philosopher who died about 480 B. C.

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS.

ON THE C. L. S. C. TEXT-BOOKS.

"A STUDY OF THE SKY."

1. Q. Why are Mercury and Venus called inferior planets? A. Because their distances from the sun are less than that of the earth.

2. Q. When are they in conjunction? A. When they appear to us to be nearly in line with the sun.

3. Q. At the time of inferior conjunction of Mercury or Venus what is the position of the planet? A. It is between the sun and the earth.

4. Q. When is an inferior planet an evening star and in what direction is it seen? A. When it is east of the sun; in the west.

5. Q. At what time can Mercury be best observed? A. When it approaches its greatest eastern elongation in March or April.

6. Q. What is the diameter of Venus? A. It is 7,700 miles.

7. Q. From observations of Venus what inference has been drawn concerning the sky and atmosphere of this planet? A. The sky is almost totally cloudy and the atmosphere continually laden with moisture.

8. Q. How does the orbit of Mars compare in

shape with that of the other planets? A. It departs farther from the circular than that of any other planet save Mercury.

9. Q. In what time does Mars make one revolution around the sun? A. Nearly 23 months, or 687 days.

10. Q. What reason is given for the supposition that there are seasonal changes on Mars? A. The rotation axis of Mars is inclined 27° toward the plane of its orbit.

11. Q. What are the most conspicuous appearances on the face of Mars? A. Roundish white masses at the poles.

12. Q. From what has the popular interest in Mars largely arisen? A. From the possibility that it is habitable by human beings.

13. Q. How many asteroids have been discovered? A. Over 400.

14. Q. Which is the brightest? A. Vesta.

15. Q. What does their faintness indicate? A. That most of them do not exceed 50 miles in diameter.

16. Q. What is the commonly received explana-

tion of the origin of the asteroids? A. That they may have arisen from the condensation of a ring of nebulous matter which was left behind as the original solar nebula contracted.

17. Q. How does Jupiter compare with the earth in bulk? A. The bulk of Jupiter is 1,300 times that of the earth.

18. Q. From what facts is drawn the conclusion that Jupiter has no solid crust? A. No feature of Jupiter's disk is permanent in form or position, and though Jupiter is 1,300 times as large as the earth it is only 316 times as heavy.

19. Q. By how many satellites is Jupiter attended? A. Five.

20. Q. What is the highly characteristic feature which distinguishes Saturn from all the other planets? A. The rings by which it is encircled.

21. Q. Of what are the rings supposed to be composed? A. Of separate small bodies.

22. Q. What position in the solar system does Neptune occupy? A. It is farther from the sun than any other planet.

23. Q. By what does an astronomer distinguish the cometary nature of a nebulous light? A. By its motion.

24. Q. What must be the shape of the orbit of a comet? A. A parabola, ellipse, or hyperbola.

25. Q. Which of these is the most common form? A. The parabola.

26. Q. Of what is the comet usually composed? A. Of rather loose aggregations of small bodies.

27. Q. Where is the seat of greatest activity in a comet? A. In the nucleus.

28. Q. What are the predominant gases found in comets? A. Hydrocarbons.

29. Q. When did the most magnificent comet of recent years appear? A. In September, 1882.

30. Q. What is the average velocity of shooting stars and what is the length of their visible paths? A. The velocity is 25 miles per second and the length of the path 40 or 50 miles.

31. Q. From what are estimates of the size and weight of shooting stars obtained? A. From the amount of light which they emit.

32. Q. What light is akin to meteors and comets? A. The zodiacal light.

33. Q. What does the term meteor include? A. Shooting stars and meteorites.

34. Q. Of what nature are meteorites? A. They are bodies of such size and toughness that they can pierce the earth's atmosphere and strike its surface.

35. Q. How many elements have been found in meteorites? A. Twenty-five.

36. Q. What is the number of stars visible to an average eye on a good night? A. About 2,000.

37. Q. Where are the telescopic stars most numerous? A. In the Milky Way.

38. Q. About how many variable stars have been discovered? A. About 400.

39. Q. Where is the finest compact cluster of stars in the northern hemisphere located? A. In Hercules.

40. Q. Where are nebulae most numerous? A. Where stars are few, near the galactic pole.

41. Q. Why have nebulae a peculiar interest for students? A. Because they are thought to be the chaotic world-stuff from which the various members of the solar system have been evolved.

NOTE.—Question 7 on page 500 of *THE CHAU-
TAUQUAN* for January should read: What did Ptolemy teach in regard to the shape and position of the earth and the orbit of every heavenly body? A. The earth is round, it occupies the center of the celestial sphere, and the orbit of every heavenly body is a circle.

“A SURVEY OF GREEK CIVILIZATION.”

1. Q. Why were the Greek colonies in danger during the first 150 years of their development? A. They lacked concentration and naval power.

2. Q. What fact made it certain that the outlying Greeks would fall a prey to the continental powers which might arise in the land? A. They occupied only coasts and attempted only trade relations with natives of foreign lands.

3. Q. By what was a close confederation of the Hellenic cities prevented? A. By commercial jealousies.

4. Q. What was the inevitable result of the failure to confederate? A. Loss of Greek liberty.

5. Q. Which of the Greeks were the first to lose their liberty? A. The eastern Greeks.

6. Q. To what is the brilliancy of Greek civilization in a measure due? A. To political individualism.

7. Q. How did the Greek world up to the year 500 B. C. show its so-called unity? A. By a community of language, one general complexion in its many creeds, and the festivals and games.

8. Q. What was the one indelible effect of the struggle with Persia? A. It made the Greeks for the first time feel themselves one nation as opposed to the Persian Empire.

9. Q. What does Æschylus show in regard to Athenian culture? A. That it was progressing with great strides in depth as well as breadth.

10. Q. With what feature of Greek life following the defeat of the Persians is our best information concerned? A. Greek political life.

11. Q. What was the result of the deep interest in politics? A. It caused a neglect of the art of living.

12. Q. What was the effect produced by the over-subtlety of language used by Greek authors? A. An effect of artificiality.

13. Q. By what was the high standard of intellectual culture shown? A. By Attic prose.

14. Q. What reason is there to suppose that there was a feverish activity of Athenian life at this period? A. At this time there was in progress a large imperial policy, an extended commercial activity, the training of a navy, the rebuilding of the city, and the practise of oratory.

15. Q. What group of buildings was constructed during this period? A. The buildings on the Acropolis, Athens.

16. Q. In art and literature how does the modern world compare with this age of the Greek? A. It does not approach the perfection of this age.

17. Q. In what does our real superiority lie? A. In our moral ideals, our philanthropy, and in our developed notions of humanity.

18. Q. To what does Thucydides attribute the ruin of the Greek public morals? A. To the Peloponnesian War.

19. Q. What did Socrates teach in regard to virtue? A. That the highest happiness was to be secured only by the practise of virtue.

20. Q. Concerning death what did Socrates teach? A. That death has no terrors for the good.

21. Q. What does the comedy of Aristophanes and his rivals show? A. The jocose and ribald side of the most brilliant Periclean life.

22. Q. Who was the cosmopolitan Greek writer of the fourth century B. C.? A. Xenophon.

23. Q. What must have been the general effect of the rise of Thebes? A. It helped to create a broader and more universal type of Hellenic culture by bringing separate civilizations into contact far more than had hitherto been the case.

24. Q. In what does Athens lead the Greeks in the fourth century B. C.? A. In philosophy and oratory.

25. Q. What kind of a society is reflected by Plato's works? A. A refined and intellectual society.

26. Q. What was the political mission of Isocrates? A. To induce Sparta and Athens to unite and lead the combined nation.

27. Q. What subjects in this period gained predominance in many minds over political discussions? A. Literary and social questions.

28. Q. From the indications which remain to us what is learned of art in this period? A. From a domestic point of view it was developing, but from a public and religious point of view it was verging to decline.

29. Q. What is asserted concerning the private life of this epoch? A. It, so far as we know, was more comfortable and elegant than that which preceded it, though less brilliant in literature and in politics.

30. Q. By what great reforms was Demosthenes occupied? A. By great financial reforms.

31. Q. What does the selection from Æschines reveal concerning the attitude of the people toward the gods? A. That the gods of the Greek pantheon were still gods to the mass of the people, and it was still possible to discredit and ruin a man by charging him with impiety.

32. Q. Among the Greeks of the fourth century B. C. what abuse was tolerated by the ordinary rules of political life? A. The abuse of allowing indirect profits to be made in politics.

33. Q. What seems to have been the most doubtful point about their business arrangements? A. The persistent high rate of interest on investments.

34. Q. What do the works of Aristotle show? A. That even in scientific severity, in cold reasoning, in complete absence of any relaxation of thought and of life, the Greeks were our masters.

THE QUESTION TABLE.

ANSWERS IN NEXT NUMBER.

FRENCH LITERATURE AND ART.—VI.

1. The style of the elder Dumas is similar to that of what great English author who wrote in the beginning of the nineteenth century?

2. What charges have been brought against Dumas in regard to the originality of his writings?

3. On what grounds have these charges been refuted?

4. Which of his works are most popular in America?

5. What French novelist of the nineteenth century has been compared to Dickens?

6. What style of painting was advocated by the Fontainebleau-Barbizon School?

7. Who were some of the most noted disciples of this school?

8. What modern French artist has been called the peasant painter?

9. What modern painter never used a model?

10. Who is the greatest living female artist?

FRENCH HISTORY.—VI.

1. At the close of what war and by what governments was the peace of Hubertusburg made?

2. What treaty was signed a few days before and by what governments?

3. When was Corsica united to the French territory?

4. What did the Seven Years' War reveal in regard to the military condition of France?

5. At the time of the death of Louis XV. what were the three orders of the state?

6. What two classes of nobility shared all the government places and what positions did they hold?

7. When were many of the great roads of France constructed and how much of the work was undertaken by the state?

8. How was the progress of industry near the middle of the eighteenth century hindered in France?

9. At the breaking out of the American Revolution who were the American envoys to Paris?

10. How did the minister of foreign affairs at first aid the American cause?

ASTRONOMY.—VI.

1. What name is given to the boundary line which separates the illuminated from the unilluminated portion of the moon?

2. When the moon is a crescent or gibbous what appearance does this boundary line present?

3. What explanation is given of this peculiarity?

4. How many mountains have been discovered on the moon?

5. Of what nature is a large majority of the lunar mountains?

6. To what outline do they almost always conform?

7. What is the harvest moon?

8. What is the average eastward movement of the moon each day?

9. What is the average difference in the times at which the moon rises from night to night?

10. At what season does the earth get the most moonlight and what explanation is given of that fact?

CURRENT EVENTS.—VI.

1. When did Cecil Rhodes resign his premiership of Cape Colony?

2. Under whom was a new ministry formed?

3. In the work of Cecil Rhodes in South Africa what is declared to be his aim?

4. Where is Bechuanaland and what government has exercised jurisdiction over it since 1885?

5. In what part of Africa is the Benin Kingdom?

6. To whom does the Constitution of the United States delegate the power to make treaties?

7. For how long a period is the proposed international arbitration treaty to be binding?

8. What provision has been made for the withdrawal of either government from the treaty?

9. What association made the first organized attempt to sketch a definite plan of arbitration? What action was taken by this body?

10. What conference was soon after held in the interest of international arbitration? Where was the meeting held?

ANSWERS TO QUESTIONS IN "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FOR FEBRUARY.

FRENCH LITERATURE AND ART.—V.

1. Prose fiction. 2. "The Persian Letters," "The Greatness and Decline of the Romans," "The Spirit of Laws." "The Spirit of Laws." 3. "Bug Jargal." 4. In Hayti at the time of the insurrection of the blacks in 1793. 5. Poetry. 6. When but fifteen he received honorable mention in competing for an academic prize with a poem on "The Happiness that Study Procures in All Situations of Life." 7. Architecture. 8. J. B. Lully (1633-1687), who though by birth an Italian was brought up in the household of the French monarch Louis XIV. 9. Germany, Italy, France. 10. Jean Cousin (1500-1590.)

FRENCH HISTORY.—V.

1. The eight years following the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle. 2. "Matters will go on as they are as long as I live; my successor may get out of the difficulty as well as he can." 3. "After us the deluge." 4. To establish territorial and governmental unity by overthrowing feudalism. 5. Covered with ruins. 6. The chancellor at the head of the department of justice, the comptroller-general of the finances, and the secretaries of war, navy, foreign affairs, and of the king's household. 7. By creating most useless offices. 8. Thirteen parliaments and four provincial councils. 9. The Parliament of Paris. 10. About two fifths of France.

ASTRONOMY.—V.

1. About 332,000 times the weight of the earth. 2. A cubic foot of the earth. 3. Toward the exterior edge. 4. The zone between 11° and 15° north of the solar equator. 5. By a Scotchman named Wilson. 6. The latitude decreases gradually as the period of minimum approaches, and as the number of spots increases the latitude increases. 7. It is inclined to the ecliptic. 8. Twofold, the spots having a motion in consequence of the sun's rotation on its axis and sometimes an independent motion of translation. 9. Sir W. Herschel. 10. From east to west.

CURRENT EVENTS.—V.

1. January, 1893. 2. By the refusal of the queen's cabinet to obey her unconstitutional requirements. 3. Sanford Ballard Dole. 4. Two, the Chamber of Nobles and the House of Representatives. 5. They lie off the east coast of Asia, east of the East China Sea; Manila. 6. To Spain; governor-general and captain-general. 7. The Council of State and the National Council. 8. The National Council. 9. The candidate must be a citizen of Switzerland holding no ecclesiastical office and in full possession of his rights. 10. Electors must be Swiss citizens, twenty years of age, possessing full civil rights as defined by the laws of their respective cantons.

THE C. L. S. C. CLASSES.

1882-1900.

CLASS OF 1897.—"THE ROMANS."

"Veni, Vidi, Vici."

OFFICERS.

President—Judge C. H. Noyes, Warren, Pa.

Vice Presidents—Rev. W. P. Varner, Bolivar, Pa.; Mrs. A. E. Barber, Bethel, Conn.; Miss Jessie Scott, Miss.; Mrs. G. B. Driscoll, Sidney, Ohio; Prof. Wm. E. Waters, Wells College, Aurora, N. Y.; A. A. Stagg, Chicago, Ill.; Mrs. Carrie V. Shaw-Rice, Tacoma, Wash.; Rev. James Ellsworth Coombs, Victoria, B. C.; Miss Emily Green, South Wales, N. Y.

Secretary—Miss Eva M. Martin, Chautauqua, N. Y.

Treasurer and Trustee—Shirley P. Austin, Pittsburg, Pa.

CLASS EMBLEM—IVY.

THE Assemblies the coming season will largely increase in number and will also take greater interest in C. L. S. C. work. The importance of this department of the Assembly is being recognized. The programs are being planned with especial reference to the Round Table work and Recognition Day will receive due prominence. We trust every member of the Class of '97 will be found in the line of march at some Assembly on Recognition Day.

A MEMBER writes: "I am looking forward with regret to the time when my work in the regular course will be completed. These four years have been very pleasant to me. I have found the Chautauqua Course very stimulative in thought, saving me from much careless and indifferent reading."

CLASS OF 1898.—"THE LANIERS."

"The humblest life that lives may be divine."

OFFICERS.

President—Dr. W. G. Anderson, New Haven, Conn.

Vice Presidents—Mrs. Frances R. Ford, Troy, N. Y.; Mrs. W. V. Hazeltine, Jamestown, N. Y.; Mrs. W. T. Gardner, S. H. Clark, Chicago, Ill.; Dr. J. M. Buckley, New York, N. Y.

Secretary and Treasurer—Mrs. H. S. Anderson, Cleveland, Ohio.

CLASS FLOWER—VIOLET.

A MEMBER of this class in Ohio writes: "Having finished the two years' readings I was very anxious to begin the regular work for the third year. I find that to read the books systematically as outlined in THE CHAUTAUQUAN not only saves time but enables me to have something profitable to think about while I am at work."

ANOTHER writes: "I am an individual reader. I am very much pleased with the course and although it requires much of my time I am sure that it is profitably spent and much of it would doubtless be wasted if I did not feel the relation that I hold to the C. L. S. C."

CLASS OF 1899.—"THE PATRIOTS."

"Fidelity, Fraternity."

OFFICERS.

President—John C. Martin, New York, N. Y.

Vice Presidents—The Rev. Cyrus B. Hatch, McKeesport, Pa.; Charles Barnard, New York, N. Y.; Frank G. Carpenter, Washington, D. C.; John Brown, Chicago, Ill.; Charles A. Carlisle, South Bend, Ind.; Edward Marsden, Alaska; William Ashton, Uxbridge, Eng.; Miss Alice P. Haworth, Osaka, Japan; Miss Frances O. Wilson, Tien-Tsin, China; Mrs. Katharine L. Stevenson, Chicago, Ill.

Secretary—Miss Isabella F. Smart, Brielle, N. J.

Treasurer and Building Trustee—John C. Whiteford, Mexico, N. Y.

CLASS EMBLEMS—THE FLAG AND THE FERN LEAF.

CLASS COLOR—BLUE.

A MEMBER of '99 from Japan writes: "I am very much delighted with the last year's work and although I have delayed registration for the year I am already pursuing this year's work with enthusiasm. I now realize the source of vast influence of the C. L. S. C. and only regret that I did not join it sooner."

ANOTHER '99 writes: "My interest in the C. L. S. C. plan grows with the second year's work. It is a great matter of satisfaction to me to know that when this year's work is finished I shall know more upon French and Greek subjects. I mean hereafter to make the reading of every year pay me intellectual tribute."

CLASS OF 1900.—"THE NINETEENTH CENTURY CLASS."

"Faith in the God of truth; hope for the unfolding centuries; charity toward all endeavor."

OFFICERS.

President—Rev. Dr. Nathaniel I. Rubinkam, Chicago, Ill.

Vice Presidents—J. F. Hunt, Chautauqua, N. Y.; Morris A. Green, Pittsburg, Pa.

Secretary—Miss Mabel Campbell, Cohoes, N. Y.

Trustee—Rev. Dr. Nathaniel I. Rubinkam, Chicago, Ill.

CLASS EMBLEM—EVERGREEN.

A NEW circle is reported at Osceola, N. Y. Great interest is taken in the readings and the Chautauqua plan is having the enthusiastic support of the community. The following letter from the treasurer of the Class of '96 will be of interest to those who have been obliged to take up the work of organizing a circle late in the season: "I have organized a fine working C. L. S. C. in one of the short courses for 1896-97. We have taken up the Half Hour Course. As we were a little late it getting started this short course is exactly adapted to our wants. The circle

is very enthusiastic over the work and as we can get full credit for what we do our undergraduate members all look toward graduation sooner or later. As a member of the famous Truth Seekers of '96 I recommend that they keep up their readings and that as many new circles as possible be organized for the shorter courses."

GRADUATE CLASSES.

A BELATED member of '96 writes: "I finish the four years' course with regret. Although the work was not new to me it has been a pleasant review and leaves me at the close with some unoccupied time which I shall be at a loss to fill as pleasantly." The special courses of the C. L. S. C. are calculated to be invaluable to such a person. The habit of systematic reading should not be lost at the completion of the four years' course.

A MEMBER of '96 writes concerning the readings just completed: "To me it has necessarily taken the place of a college course, enlarging so much as it does on studies begun in the high school. I hope next year to be able to take up one of the special reading courses."

ANOTHER writes: "I am sorry indeed to be obliged to send in my report so late in the year, but owing to sickness could not report earlier. I wish every one could take up the Chautauqua reading.

It has done me a world of good, giving me a taste for better and more solid reading."

THE chairman of the decennial committee of the Class of 1887 writes thus:

"MY DEAR CLASSMATES: Has it occurred to you that next August we shall have reached our tenth milestone? Will you just for a moment, if you were one of those six hundred and eighty-seven who marched as solidly as a Roman phalanx through the golden gate on that memorable day in 1887, think what it would be if we could meet and once more clasp hands in the same hall when we celebrate our decennial? We numbered six hundred and eighty-seven then; can we not meet one thousand strong next summer? Try. It will need some sacrifice—maybe a heavy one; but is it not worth the cost? Count the cost now and decide that August 17, 1897, will once again see you walking up the old familiar pathway. If you have never been to Chautauqua there could be no more appropriate time or joyous occasion for you to pass the golden gate and arches than on this our tenth anniversary. Write me that you will come, and any information you desire as to cost or securing pleasant quarters I will gladly give.

"With best wishes,

"CORNELIA ADELE TEAL.

"523 Washington Avenue, Brooklyn, N. Y."

LOCAL CIRCLES.

C. L. S. C. MOTTOES.

"We Study the Word and the Works of God."

"Let us Keep our Heavenly Father in the Midst."

"Never be Discouraged."

C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS.

OPENING DAY—October 1.

BRYANT DAY—November, second Sunday.

MILTON DAY—December 9.

COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.

LANIER DAY—February 3.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.

LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.

SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.

ADDISON DAY—May 1.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.

INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Saturday after first Tuesday.

ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first Tuesday.

SPECIAL MEMORIAL DAYS FOR 1896-97.

CHARLEMAGNE DAY—October 30.

"SAINT LOUIS" DAY—November 30.

JOAN OF ARC DAY—December 4.

RICHIEU DAY—January 4.

HOMER DAY—February 12.

SOCRATES DAY—March 5.

EPAMINONDAS DAY—April 24.

PHIDIAS DAY—May 24.

NEW CIRCLES.

MAINE.—The Roccomeka Circle at Livermore Falls organized at the beginning of the year with an active membership of eleven. The weekly meetings are attended with satisfactory results and judging from a program received thorough work is being done by the members.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.—A quartet of readers at Colebrook are known as the Dixville Notch Circle.

NEW YORK.—The Orleans C. L. S. C. of Holley,

organized in December, starts out with a dozen members who will make up the two months' work before the end of the year.—A circle has been organized at Middlesex with the pastor of the M. E. Church as leader.—A band of Chautauquans at Hancock, the Shehawken Circle, are members of 1900.—The following report comes from a member of the circle at Elmira: "Our circle was organized November 9, with fifteen members; we now number twenty-one and are expecting others to

join. With one exception our members all attend the First Presbyterian Church and the meetings are held in the church once a week. Great interest is taken in the lessons and although we began work so late we are not at present trying to make up for lost time, as the lessons assigned for each week are as much as we can manage."

NEW JERSEY.—The Oriflamme Circle of Chester organized at the beginning of the year with sixteen members and are keeping up to their motto, "Step by step one accomplishes much."—The circle at Belle Mead sends names for enrollment in the Class of 1900.

PENNSYLVANIA.—A class at Sharon Hill greatly enjoys the circle reading.—The new class at Clark is doing faithful work.

KENTUCKY.—The work of the Elizabethan Circle of Elizabethtown is of a high order; their motto is "In God we trust" and their flower the pansy.

ALABAMA.—Two former members of the C. L. S. C. of Mobile have been instrumental in organizing a circle of young girls just out of school.—The report from Selma speaks for itself: "We organized October 1 with five members; now we have fifteen, and there is such an *esprit de corps* among us that we feel we cannot miss a meeting."

INDIAN TERRITORY.—The new class at Cale was a month behind in beginning the reading, but with steady application to work will finish the year with the class.

INDIANA.—A program received from the circle at Frankfort is a neatly printed pamphlet giving the course of study for the year, the names of the members, and the constitution of the circle. This class is composed of twenty-five members who are doing great credit to the C. L. S. C.—The students at Warsaw are well pleased with the course.

ILLINOIS.—Among the new C. L. S. C.'s of this state are classes at Lee Center, Oak Park, and Evanston.

WISCONSIN.—The Madison Circle was organized in October and the members have entered upon the work with great zeal and earnestness, while their good influence is showing itself in the constantly increasing membership.

IOWA.—The lecture system is being successfully carried out by the class at Osceola; the first was a lecture on French literature, which proved interesting and instructive.—A circle is organized at Mason City.

KANSAS.—The Fairfield Reading Circle works under plans of its own originating with the view to encourage the taste for good literature in young and old.—A zealous band of workers at Haddam is pursuing the course with profit.—Vincent Circle of Paola has about twenty determined members.

CALIFORNIA.—Two circles at Los Angeles find much pleasure in the reading course.

OLD CIRCLES.

MASSACHUSETTS.—Names for enrollment are received from Springfield, Worcester, and North Dana.—The '99's are in the majority at Florence.

NEW YORK.—The Current History Course is giving good satisfaction among the readers at Syracuse.—"Character Sketches in Which Kings Appear at Court" proved a novel and entertaining part of a recent meeting of the Eideweiss Circle of Mount Vernon. Among the royal guests represented by the members of the circle were Henry of Navarre, Henry VIII. of England, Mary Queen of Scots, and William of Orange. All entered into the spirit of the occasion, comparing notes on the events current in their time and heartily throwing themselves into the characters they represented. A list of twenty-one names is received from the Mt. Vernon C. L. S. C. Their meetings are held regularly and are marked by good attendance and good work.—Five of the members at Ilion began the course in November but by diligent study have caught up with the class; their fortnightly meetings keep up unflinching interest in the work.—The second year of Alpha Circle of Strykersville finds them battling with many discouragements but confident of victory in the end.—West Troy has a live C. L. S. C.

NEW JERSEY.—Bridgeton Circle derives great benefit from the C. L. S. C.

PENNSYLVANIA.—The circle of twenty at Steelton is one of the strongest in the state.—Maclaren Circle of Philadelphia includes members of the Classes of '99 and 1900.—A goodly number of new members are added to the class at Harrisburg.

TENNESSEE.—"The Craddock Circle at McMinnville thinks it would be hard to find another circle with more interest in the work. We are all busy people and have many obstacles to surmount, but are not discouraged. The study of 'French Traits' has had a wonderful influence on our habits of study, compelling us to concentrate our minds and to think. We feel now that we not only know more of the French nation but of our own also."

OHIO.—For about ten years the village of Medina has been interested in C. L. S. C. work, graduating one or more of its members almost every year. Connected with the present circle are college graduates, ministers, and business men and women, all of whom receive untold benefits from the readings.

INDIANA.—The eighteen members composing the Workers' Circle of Fort Wayne give evidence of the appropriateness of their name, and though often discouraged they are pulling steadily forward.—This is the second year for the Westfield Circle.

ILLINOIS.—The circle at Moline is fortunate in being offered the use of an observatory and telescope in connection with their study of astronomy.—Encouraging reports come from Griggsville, Port Byron, Hanover, and Brimfield.

MICHIGAN.—The circle at Milan is in good working order.

IOWA.—The loyalty of the Hopkinton Circle is expressed in the words of the secretary: "We enjoy our meetings so much that only sickness prevents our being present."—This is the third year's work for most of the members of the Holmes Ideal Circle at Rolfe. They choose a leader for each lesson and find this the best plan for systematized study. That the C. L. S. C. is adapted to busy people is illustrated by the report of a member of this circle who says: "We all feel greatly indebted to Chautauqua work, as most of us are busy housewives who are so apt to fall into a humdrum existence unless stimulated by some duty which will compel us to read and think, and Chautauqua is the right thing to take one's thoughts away from everyday cares."—The class at New Market is a devotee of the suggestive programs in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*. Their leaders are appointed to serve a month at a time and the course gives entire satisfaction. —The circle at Iowa City is successful.

MISSOURI.—Kansas City has a reorganized circle known as the Independence Avenue Circle. —Several '99's in St. Louis are successfully working out the Chautauqua plan.

KANSAS.—All of the undergraduate classes are represented in the circle at Junction City.

COLORADO.—The Columbian Circle of Denver, organized in 1893, is prospering; the meetings are held Monday evenings in the parlors of Asbury Methodist Church and are well attended. It is the aim of the circle to hold open meetings every month, a special feature of which is a lecture by a competent person on some subject in touch with the course of reading. This circle, with other Denver circles, is now enjoying a series of lectures on the French and other revolutions.

CALIFORNIA.—The French Christmas celebrated by the Vallejo Circle was an event long to be remembered by all fortunate enough to be present. On the last night of the year, Sylvester's Eve, the Chautauquans gathered at the home of one of the members, where a novel entertainment was carried out. A literary and musical program was the first feature, in which two original poems, full of wit and humor, figured conspicuously. Refreshments were then served, after which Santa Claus distributed the presents from the overlaid Christmas tree. The new year was ushered in before the guests reluctantly took their leave. —Mono Circle of Bodie is prospering.

TALK ABOUT BOOKS.

Studies in English Literature.

The fifth and last volume of Craik's "English Prose Selections"* calls the attention of the reader to the literature of the present century. An introduction by the editor gives a comparative study of the prose of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries and the selections, showing the characteristic style of each author, are preceded by short and interesting biographical sketches and critical studies, written by the editor, George Saintsbury, and many others. Nearly fifty authors, beginning with Sir Walter Scott and concluding with Robert Louis Stevenson, are studied.

The author of "The Interpretation of Literature"† opens his book with an interesting dissertation on the principles which govern the construction of the various forms of literary production, in which he shows why literature as a means of "human expression" takes its place among the arts. This is followed by the section of the book dealing with the investigation of the various kinds of literary productions, for the study of which outlines are given. The appendix contains a classified list of poetic and prose masterpieces.

* English Prose Selections. Edited by Henry Craik. 783 pp. \$1.10.—† The Interpretation of Literature. By W. H. Crawshaw, A. M. 245 pp. \$1.00. New York: The Macmillan Company.

It is by the critical analysis of classical literature that the art of expression may be studied, and for this purpose "Studies in Structure and Style"* have been presented by W. T. Brewster, A. M. Selections have been judiciously made from the works of eminent authors, on which are based the notes, general questions, and suggestions on literary structure. Each quotation is studied as to its object, the principles of its construction, and the plan of the narrative. As a supplement to the study of rhetoric it is particularly valuable.

Three excellent and interesting essays make up the contents of a little volume devoted to the interest of literature. The first, "A Guide to English Literature,"† is a critical review of Mr. Stopford Brooke's work, "A Primer of English Literature." Then there follows an essay on Thomas Gray and John Morley's address, "On the Study of Literature," delivered in 1887 before the students of the London Society interested in the extension of university teaching.

* Studies in Structure and Style. By W. T. Brewster, A. M. With an Introduction by G. R. Carpenter, A. B. 292 pp. \$1.10. —† A Guide to English Literature and Essay on Gray. By Matthew Arnold. On the Study of Literature. By John Morley. 152 pp. 75 cts. New York: The Macmillan Company.

Stopford A. Brooke, in "English Literature,"* gives briefly "the story of nearly 1200 years of the thoughts, feelings, and imagination of a great people," as he tells us in his opening paragraph. He relates the story in a straightforward way, giving a vast amount of information in less than three hundred pages on the progress and development in the field of letters from about 600 A. D. to 1832.

How and what to write is the theme of "The Forms of Discourse."† Rules and explanations are given and a chapter is devoted to the subject of style. Numerous illustrations of the various forms of literary style from classic literature are included in the text, making a practical study in the art of composition for high schools and colleges.

A volume which is very interesting and valuable to students of literature is called "American and British Authors."‡ Biographical sketches, characterizations and criticisms, and lists of the principal works of each author, with selections for memorizing, are some of the many excellent features of this book, which is worthy a place in every school and library.

Poetry.

To some people poetry is tolerable only when it contains a thread of narrative. Such will regard favorably the simple lyrics comprised in "Uncle Ben and Other Poems,"§ and will glean many tender, suggestive thoughts from their wholesome philosophy.

Shelley's mysticism without its charm and Byron's misanthropy without its pathos are the qualities most apparent in "The Substance of His House."§ Is Prosser Hall Frye a very young man, one wonders, with a penchant for the morbid, or has he really tasted of life and found it all gall and wormwood? It must be owned that such intensity of unhappy passion is rather trying to the nerves, and tends to dull one's appreciation of the possible beauties of the verse.

One so dear to a nation's heart as "Old Abe" deserves a master eulogist, and Lyman Whitney Allen has strung his lyre not unworthily; at least so must the *New York Herald's* staff have thought, who conferred upon him a prize of \$1,000 for his authorship of twenty-five connected poems¶ relative to the war and its central tragedy. Its stirring mar-

tial ring and exaltation of sentiment should place the work among our classics of patriotic literature.

A radiant, scintillant spirit was Emily Dickinson, whose tender, luminous thoughts were continually falling in pearls from her lips. Many of these spontaneous outbursts of her rare genius are given in "Poems, Third Series"*—a dainty volume instinct with the lovely personality of its author.

Sweet as the May-time wind, arbutus scented, and clear and vibrant as a wood-bird's note are the poems Emily Huntington Miller has compiled in "From Avalon."† Who loves poetry will love "Fallen on Sleep," "Hepatica," and the others, and no critic will deny the rich poetic gifts of this gentle singer.

By one who knows the life history of Johanna Ambrosius‡ her verses will first be read to satisfy curiosity, but this feeling soon gives way to wonder and real interest as the beautiful and tender sentiment of the poems touches the heart of the reader. Perfect simplicity of utterance characterizes these poems, which tell of nature and of life with its sorrows and loves. The volume includes pictures of the poetess and her humble home, and the introduction, with the criticism by Herman Grimm, gives the reader an excellent idea of the conditions from which she has arisen.

"Poems of Uhland,"§ selected and edited by Waterman T. Hewett, Ph. D., contain, with many other beautiful poems, those which are now classed among the folk-songs of Germany. An excellent biographical introduction precedes the poems, all of which are in the original, and copious notes, a bibliography, and indexes are appended to the text, making a fine collection for those able to read the German language.

A new edition§ of Robert Browning's poems contains "all Mr. Browning's regularly published plays and poems, from 'Pauline' (1833) to 'Asolando' (1889)." No criticisms accompany the text but an occasional word is explained at the foot of the page and preceding some of the productions are statements concerning the characters, places, and events mentioned. An index of first lines, a general index, and a chronological list of Browning's productions are inserted in the second volume. The volumes are neatly bound and each contains a portrait of the poet.

* English Literature. By Stopford A. Brooke, M.A. 283 pp. 90 cts. New York: The Macmillan Company.

† The Forms of Discourse. By William B. Cairns, A.M. 368 pp. \$1.25. Boston: Ginn and Company.

‡ American and British Authors; A Text-book on Literature. By Frank V. Irish. 344 pp. \$1.35. Columbus, O.: Frank V. Irish.

§ Uncle Ben and Other Poems, with an Essay on Poetry and Religion. By James Stephenson, D.D. 160 pp. Cincinnati: Cranston and Curtis. New York: Hunt and Eaton.

¶ The Substance of His House. Poems. By Prosser Hall Frye. 198 pp. \$1.00.—¶ Abraham Lincoln. A Poem. By Lyman Whitney Allen. 112 pp. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

* Poems. By Emily Dickinson. Edited by Mabel Loomis Todd. Third Series. 200 pp. \$1.25. Boston: Roberts Brothers.

† From Avalon and Other Poems. By Emily Huntington Miller. 75 pp. Chicago: A. C. McClurg and Company.

‡ Poems by Johanna Ambrosius. Edited by Professor Karl Schrantenthal. Translated by Mary J. Safford. 296 pp. \$1.50. Boston: Roberts Brothers.

§ Poems of Uhland. Selected and Edited by Waterman T. Hewett, Ph.D. 410 pp. \$1.10.—§ The Poetical Works of Robert Browning. With Portraits. Two vols. 756+793 pp. \$3.50 per set. New York: The Macmillan Company.

History.

An abridged edition of "The American Commonwealth"* has been prepared for the use of students in high schools and colleges. The first part gives a history of each department of our national government, with an account of the origin of the Constitution. Parts II. and III. treat of the state governments, political methods, and the influence of the physical formation of the United States upon the political and economic conditions. It is a volume of absorbing interest and contains information essential to the student of our political history.

A chapter on the progress of the Christian religion and the character of the early Christians opens the second volume of Gibbon's "History of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire,"† edited by J. B. Bury, M.A. The progress of the Roman Empire is traced to the year 363 A. D. The book is supplied with foot-notes, an appendix of additional notes by the editor, and an elaborate table of contents.

Two volumes‡ by Charles Morris contain a large number of tales of Roman and Greek historical and legendary periods. The author has employed simple yet dignified diction in telling these stories, so that they will attract both old and young. Each of the volumes is well illustrated, some of the pictures reproducing places made famous by classic literature.

The number of books in The Story of the Nations series has been enlarged by two volumes. One gives a graphic history of Canada|| from the early period of discovery and settlement to "the establishment of a confederation which extends from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean," with a few additional pages on the national development of Canada. The second contains the story of four states,§ Roumania, Bulgaria, Servia, and Montenegro, an effective and concise account of the events connected with these political divisions, which presents to the reader the necessary facts for a comprehension of the political situation in that section of the world.

"The Nicaragua Canal and the Monroe Doctrine"¶ is the title of a volume which gives an interesting account of isthmus transit in its political aspect, particular attention being given to the Nicaragua route. The author begins his history with the discovery of America and gives a comprehensive

view of the scheme for obtaining interoceanic communication by way of Central America.

Part III. of "Stories from English History"* contains two dozen interesting tales which portray important events in the history of Great Britain from the time of the Lord Protector to Queen Victoria. The stories are well written and entertaining and the volume is amply illustrated.

Incidents interesting if not of extreme historical importance are recounted in a volume entitled "The Year After the Armada."† The nine studies contained in the book for the most part relate to the history of Spain in the early centuries, and pleasantly stimulate a deeper interest in the times rife with intrigue. The volume is printed in large clear type and contains several portraits.

The history of Rome‡ to the death of Augustus is the subject of a book for use in secondary schools. The author has clearly presented the dry facts of history in an attractive way and for the most part confined himself to the most important events. Several maps accompany the text and the chronological table of chief dates is placed in the appendix.

Fiction.

Pictures of pastoral life in a little town on the Tyne are painted by a careful hand in a collection of idyls denominated "Tyne Folk."|| The author himself, being a dweller among the Scotch people whom he portrays, has been able to bring out the lights and shades of existence in this one little corner of the world.

A story wholesome and uplifting in its influence is called "Friends for Good."§ It is the history of two girls who were obliged to care for themselves, at first in New York City then in a distant sea-coast town of Maine. The manner in which the complications of the plot are worked out and the vividness with which the scenes are portrayed show the skill of the author, who has produced an entertaining story.

An enviable combination of attractions is offered the public in the story entitled "Matouchon."¶ The diction is simple and pleasing, the plot striking, and the story with its stirring adventure and description of outdoor life fascinating to boys and girls alike. Had these qualities been present in a less degree the book still would have been worth reading because

* The American Commonwealth. By James Bryce. Abridged Edition. 560 pp. \$1.75.—† The History of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire. By Edward Gibbon. Edited by J. B. Bury, M.A. Vol II. 584 pp. \$2.00. New York: The Macmillan Company.

‡ Historical Tales. By Charles Morris. Roman and Greek. Two vols. 340 + 366 pp. \$1.25 each. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company.

|| The Story of Canada. By J. G. Bourinot, C.M.G., LL.D., D.C.L. 481 pp. \$1.50.—§ The Balkans. By William Miller, M.A. (Oxon.) 495 pp. \$1.50.—¶ The Nicaragua Canal and the Monroe Doctrine. By Lindley Miller Keasbey, Ph.D., R.P.D. 637 pp. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

* Stories from English History. From the Lord Protector to Victoria. By the Rev. A. J. Church, M.A. 230 pp. \$1.00.—

† The Year After the Armada and Other Historical Studies. By Martin A. S. Hume. F. R. Hist. S. 396 pp. \$3.50. New York: The Macmillan Co.

‡ A Short History of Rome. By J. Wells, M.A. 364 pp. 5s., 6d. London: Methuen & Co.

|| Tyne Folk. By Joseph Parker. 200 pp. 75 cts. New York and Chicago: Fleming H. Revell Company.

§ Friends for Good. By Mary E. Bradley. 367 pp.—

¶ Matouchon. A Story of Indian Child Life. Illustrated. By Annie Maria Barnes. 316 pp. \$1.25. Philadelphia: The American Sunday-School Union.

of its historical value in faithfully reflecting the wigwam and tribal life of the North American Indians, their customs and superstitions which are rapidly vanishing. Incidental to the Indian story is given a charming and pathetic narrative of how missionaries work to uplift the savages. The book is a strong plea for the Indians and for the advantages to be gained by sending more missionaries among them.

Is George Eliot to have a successor—one worthy to rank beside her in the catalogue of great English novelists—is a question that interests some who have been following Mrs. Ward's advance to fame. Such a possibility is certainly suggested by the lofty conception and masterly technique of "Sir George Tressady,"* supplementing as they do the rare intellectual power and keen artistic perception displayed in her earlier works. And yet, undeniable as is the genius that wields this vigorous and truthful pen, we feel that it has failed of fullest achievement. And for the absence of one vital requisite which, possessed, has made many a less gifted writer forever dear and great. The characters—Letty, Sir George, and the rest—do not live. Galatea without breath and Undine without a soul are their prototypes, and no amount of analyzing makes them real people. Haply this vivifying power is only latent in our author, and will one day waken, like the princess, and invest her whole world with life; but to some it is given to miss Olympus by a very narrow bound, and Mrs. Ward, in our humble opinion, is not destined to sit among the gods.

The time of the events in a short novel called "Sir Mark"† is the latter part of the eighteenth century and the scenes of the action England and Philadelphia. The second part of the story purports to be from the records of a Philadelphia merchant, and the style accords well with the time represented, giving it the semblance of verity.

"The Log of a Privateersman"‡ retails the hazardous adventures of one George Bowen, who shipped in 1804 as second mate on the *Dolphin*, an English privateer. Many exciting incidents are related in a simple, natural way, and the story closes with the hero's acceptance of a commission as lieutenant in his Majesty's navy.

A romance of great power and force is "Quo Vadis."§ It is a story of Rome in the time of Nero

in which are depicted the luxuriousness and excesses of court life, the character of influential citizens, the devotion of the early Christians, the dangers which surrounded them, and the destruction of Rome by fire. Petronius Arbiter, as well as Nero, is faithfully portrayed, in strong contrast to whom are Saint Paul and Saint Peter.

"Virgin Soil,"* a novel by Ivan Turgenev, is a story of the beginning of the nihilistic movement in Russia. Outside of its political interest there is much to attract the reader in the types of humanity and the conditions of life which are vividly portrayed by the novelist. An interesting introduction, critical in character, written by Edward Garnett, introduces the novel, which has been translated into excellent English by Constance Garnett.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

AMERICAN BOOK COMPANY, NEW YORK, CINCINNATI, CHICAGO.
Goldsmith, Oliver. *The Vicar of Wakefield*.
Eclectic English Classics, 35 cts.

THE AMERICAN SUNDAY-SCHOOL UNION, PHILADELPHIA.
Williams, Helen B. *Hugh Pennoek*. \$1.10.

D. APPLETON AND COMPANY, NEW YORK.
Blow, Susan E. *The Songs and Music of Friedrich Froebel's Mother Play*. \$1.50.

C. W. BARDEEN, SYRACUSE, N. Y.
Quick, Robert Herbert, M.A., Trin. Coll. *Essays on Educational Reformers*. \$1.00.
Bardeen, C. W. *A Manual of Common School Law*. \$1.00.
Weaver, F. W. *Pictures in Language Work*. Second Edition, from New Plates. 50 cts.
Farnham, Amos W. *The Oswego Normal Method of Teaching Geography*. 50 cts.
Harris, William Torrey, LL.D. *Horace Mann*. 50 cts.
Strickland, Marion. *Suggestions for Kindergarten Work*. 50 cts.
Froebel's *Letters on the Kindergarten*. Edited and Annotated by Emile Michaelis and H. Keatley Moore, B.A., B. Mus. \$1.50.

E. T. CLARKE & COMPANY, READING, MASS.
Clarke, William Horatio. *Cheerful Philosophy for Thoughtful Invalids*.

THE ROBERT CLARKE COMPANY, CINCINNATI.
Chittenden, Hiram Martin. *The Yellowstone National Park: Historical and Descriptive*. Illustrated with Maps, Views, and Portraits.

THOMAS Y. CROWELL AND COMPANY, NEW YORK AND BOSTON.
Household Stories from the Collection of the Brothers Grimm. Translated by Lucy Crane. With Illustrations by Walter Crane. 75 cts.
Brown, Anna Robertson, Ph.D. *Culture and Reform*. 35 cts.
Farrar, The Very Rev. F. W., D.D. *The Paths of Duty: Counsels to Young Men*. 35 cts.
Miller, J. R., D.D. *A Gentle Heart*. 35 cts.
Eliot, Charles W., LL.D. *The Happy Life*. 35 cts.
Dole, Charles F. *The Golden Rule in Business*. 35 cts.

DODD, MEAD, AND COMPANY, NEW YORK.
Smith, Gertrude. *Dedora Heywood*.
Thorold, Anthony W., D.D. *On Money*. 50 cts.
Watson, John (Ian Maclaren). *The Upper Room*.

EATON & MAINS, NEW YORK.
CURTIS & JENNINGS, CINCINNATI.
Long, Fannie. *Ben Abbott: A Temperance Story*. \$1.25.
Johnston, Annie Fellows. *In League with Israel: A Tale of the Chattanooga Conference*. 90 cts.

PUNK AND WAGNALLS COMPANY, NEW YORK.
Winslow, Forbes, D.C.L., Oxon., M.B., LL.M., Cantab. *Youthful Eccentricity a Precursor of Crime*.
Bell, David Charles. *The Reader's Shakespeare*. Vol. II. *Tragedies and One Romantic Play, "The Tempest"*.)

* *Virgin Soil*. By Ivan Turgenev. Translated from the Russian by Constance Garnett. Two vols. 263+262 pp. \$1.25 each. New York: Macmillan and Company.

* Sir George Tressady. By Mrs. Humphrey Ward. Two vols. 307+352 pp. \$2.00. New York: The Macmillan Company.

† Sir Mark. *A Tale of the First Capital*. By Anna Robeson Brown. 159 pp. 75 cts. New York: D. Appleton and Company.

‡ *The Log of a Privateersman*. By Harry Collingwood. Illustrated by W. Rainey, R. I. 376 pp. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

§ "Quo Vadis." By Henry Sienkiewicz. Translated from the Polish by Jeremiah Curtin. 541 pp. \$2.00. Boston: Little, Brown, and Company.

CHARLES DUDLEY WARNER'S LIBRARY.

Last month we were able to commend without reservation the general design, method and scope of Charles Dudley Warner's new Library of the World's Best Literature.

Upon most careful examination we found that it made good its name; that it did, in fact, take the place of whole libraries of scattered volumes and put the reader in possession of the best of all that has been written, in every age and country, since writing began.

In looking through one of the earlier volumes, our eyes lit, by a mere chance, on the statement that Aristotle's collection of books was "perhaps the first considerable private library in the world," and we could not but reflect on the unfailing love of books in man, since here were we, near nineteen hundred years after Christ, examining a work just come from the press to meet the very same desire for a collection of the world's best literature which, near four hundred years before Christ, moved Aristotle to the expenditure of a considerable fraction of a handsome inherited fortune.

And this pleasant bit of information, by the way, is typical of the whole work. Its biographical articles are not the dry statistical skeletons of the ordinary encyclopedia, but convey lively impressions of each subject. For instance, the paper on Aristotle, written by Professor Thos. W. Davidson, an eminent Aristotelian scholar, re-creates him into a man; one who if you cut him would bleed; one who led a life of real incidents, which it is a pleasure to read about. And then, when your interest in the man is thoroughly warm, and you feel that you would like to know something of his ideas, you have laid before you the best that survives to us of his writings, including the one poem of his we have—the noble "Hymn to Virtue." Thus in scarcely an hour's reading, and reading, too, of the most entertaining kind, we

make an acquaintance quite sufficient for all the needs of general culture with one of the master-spirits of the world.

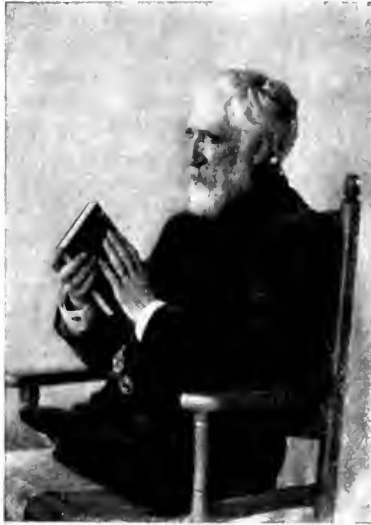
But Aristotle, however entertainingly presented, may seem to some readers pretty far away, and they would like assurance of something nearer. Well, then (and we choose quite at random), here is Thomas Bailey Aldrich, an American poet and story-teller of our own time, and of whom all know something. A sketch of but three pages gives us a complete, vivid impression of the man, and fixes for us his place and purpose in literature. Some thirty pages more supply us with

excellent specimens of his stories and thirteen of his choicest poems in full. We doubt if one could gain any juster notion of the man and his writings than is here presented, but if one wished to make a particular study of Aldrich, and to come to know him down to his last expression, he could introduce himself in no other wise so pleasantly and simply to this larger enterprise as by first reading the Aldrich section of the "Library of the World's Best Literature."

And this suggests a mention of one of the special values of the work. It affords a general prospect

of the whole field, which is always a prerequisite of intelligent mastery of any special province, and for those who care to go beyond, it is the most agreeable and also the most trustworthy guide to each special province, and prepares the way to most intelligently and thoroughly cover it. Consequently it is just as useful to the most exacting student of books as to those who read for entertainment, or to acquire general literary culture.

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work. In the first volume only a part of the letter "A" is covered, but see what a sweep and multifariousness that one volume presents! It opens with a delightful account of the historic lovers Abélard and Heloise, with typical letters of each, and the famous "Vesper Hymn" of Abélard. Here we are making an acquaintance with the close of the eleventh and the opening of the twelfth century. The very next subject, Edmond About, the author of so many well-known tales, transports us to the latter half of the nineteenth century. Then follows a chapter on the general subject of Accadian-Babylonian, and Assyrian literature, with an account of the most recent discoveries at Babylon, the names of individual authors in this far-off age being quite lost. This is the oldest literature thus far recovered, and an older will probably never be found. It is inscribed mainly on tablets which it has taken years of excavation to discover and years of scholarship to decipher and translate. The best of it is given here, translated especially for the Library into admirable English.

The turn of a leaf brings us back from old, half-buried Assyria to new America, presented in the person of one of its noblest and most gifted dames, Abigail Adams. Along with an interesting sketch of Mrs. Adams' life and character, by Lucia Gilbert Runkle, is given a generous selection from those enduring letters she wrote to her husband and other members of her family. Other Adamses follow, for it has been a great name in oratory and political literature; Henry, the well-known American historian; John, the second president of the United States, and John Quincy, the sixth president of the United States. Finally, we have Sarah Flower Adams, who wrote "Nearer my God to Thee."

Then we come to Addison, from whose pen language flowed in its freest and most genial phrases. The most delightful of Addison's immortal essays are reproduced: "Sir Roger de Coverly at the play;" the "Essay on Fans," and so on.

Then come Æschines, the famous orator of the Greeks, and Æschylus, the greatest of the Greek tragic poets; Agassiz, our greatest naturalist, is amply exhibited, and so are Grace Aguilar, William Harrison Ainsworth, Mark Akenside, Louisa M. Alcott, Henry M. Alden, Alfonso the Wise, Alfred the Great, James Lane Allen, the laureate of the "Blue Grass" region, and Hans Christian Ander-

sen—with the best each one has written.

We have named but a portion of the subjects in the first volume; the second is even more interesting, and deals with such subjects as Edwin Arnold, Matthew Arnold, the Arthurian legends (whence Tennyson drew the stories for the "Idyls of the King" and Wagner the plot of his great opera "Tristan and Isolde"), Audubon, the American ornithologist, Auerbach, the German novelist, Jane Austen, Francis Bacon, and many others.

In short, all climes, all times have been levied on for the contents of these volumes. "A good book," Milton said, "is the precious life-blood of a master-spirit, embalmed and treasured up on purpose to a life beyond life." We have here this vital fluid distilled down to its last potency, so that the full virtue of all good books beyond number has been concentrated into thirty volumes.

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